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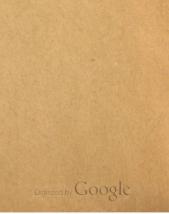
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EWALD'S

#### INTRODUCTORY

### HEBREW GRAMMAR

#### TRANSLATED

#### FROM THE THIRD GERMAN EDITION

BY

J. FREDERICK SMITH.

WITH THE AUTHOR'S CONCURRENCE AND CORRECTIONS.

LONDON:

ASHER & Co., 13, BEDFORD STREET.

COVENT GARDEN, W. C.

1870.

2246,18

1873, Sept. 30. Minot Fund,

S. C.

#### TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

The Author's preface explains the design of this work, and his name is a sufficient recommendation. The translator has but two things to say in reference to his own work: first, that he has studied to present an accurate translation without much regard to pleasant reading, which is not sought for in Hebrew Grammars; and, then, that while the German edition of this work contains neither table of contents, nor indexes of any kind, a table of contents and indexes of texts, Hebrew words, and subjects have been added by him to this.

The translator may here express his indebtedness to the author for the advice and assistance in the preparation of the translation which he has at all times so freely given him. Other obligations, which have accumulated since 1862, can only be gratefully remembered.

Edinburgh, November 1869.

## AUTHOR'S PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION.

As the Ausführliches Lehrbuch will immediately appear in a new greatly enlarged and much improved edition\*, I am unwilling to leave this smaller one in a new edition without the most varied, often small, but still very important, additions, improvements and simplifications; and as it was originally designed for the necessities of beginners, I have had them in view primarily in preparing this new edition also.

For this smaller Grammar may serve also for purely scientific readers, both alone and also as an introduction to the larger one, if they desire to thoroughly examine particular points, by giving them a more rapid view of the essential subjects of a Hebrew Grammar, and by presenting briefly but scientifically all the most essential matters needful to be considered in this language and which distinguish it from all others. It may be useful for many purposes to learn as quickly and yet as accurately as possible a language, and also the Hebrew, in its essential nature and true construction as well as history; and beginners or thoroughly well-grounded learners in this language are, even to day, to be sought not alone upon the benches of our colleges. Therefore complete

<sup>\*</sup> See p. VIII.

uniformity, even in external arrangement, has been observed between this smaller and the larger Grammar; and also in the first of the three parts of the work, the subject-matter is somewhat more clearly and suitably arranged in the new edition of the larger Grammar, as it had before appeared in the former edition of this smaller one.

But I still find occasion here to express my most earnest wish that this smaller Grammar may be used there especially where it may yield the most general and most fruitful service, amongst the actual beginners in our learned schools. What sad consequences follow from the use of Grammars which are below the present more advanced state of Hebrew philology, recent appearances have plainly shown.

The acquirement of any subject makes it necessary, even for the beginner, that the subject be as correctly explained in all its chief points and as thoroughly presented as is possible in our hurried days. Every simplification of difficulties, that is apparent only and hinders the real object, must here be avoided: the most correct presentation of the subject, and the greatest certainty of acquaintance with it, is the best simplification and the alone fruitful assistance for all beginners. That a foreign language, which is not learned merely from and for the purpose of speaking, should be learned without any acquaintance with its nature, no one will maintain; and the eyes and ears of our beginners have always been only too much terrified with so-called "rules". but still more their minds perplexed and their expectations disappointed. why should not this acquaintance for beginners themselves be both the most appropriate, and therefore the shortest, as well as the most precise and most fruitful? The difference between a serviceable elementary book for beginners and a more exhaustive work for more advanced scholars does not lie in this, that the subject-matter of each is essentially unlike or the knowledge with which it is presented is different: it is

the amount only of what is to be presented and learned that constitutes the difference; and it is just to give those the credit of possessing the best knowledge of this amount who are more fully acquainted with the entire field of the particular science.

For, further, the whole of the subject-matter must be presented with the greatest possible completeness in a smaller manual of this kind, that the beginner, as far as is helpful for him, may have a view of the wide extent of the subject before him, and may make himself fully at home in it everywhere for more advanced knowledge. Nothing is more erroneous than to wish to withhold from the beginner. merely on account of apparent difficulties, certain parts of a complete whole, without a correct acquaintance with which there can be no true and profitable understanding of the language. Accordingly, everything will be found in this short Grammar very fully treated, even what is apparently the most difficult, sometimes in entirely new technical terms, required by the matter in hand. When the subject is most fully understood the best nomenclature is easily struck off: and a great number of most unfitting technical words, which grew up rankly in the last centuries under a superficial and false understanding of things, are here either wholly left out, or limited as to their meaning.

In the same way, a shorter hand-book must present the subject-matter in the most correct division of its greater and lesser members, must show the safest order of advance in which things one after another may be most clearly understood, and must supply the simplest arrangement by which all the unusually numerous particulars are to be sought and found. Whatever deeper knowledge and strict science attains in this respect, is most advantageous for the thorough learning of and easier acquaintance with the subject; and it would be difficult to say how great advantages are conferred

by the correct division, the clearness and distinctness of all the greater and smaller parts of the wide subject.

If all this holds of every foreign language that is taught in schools, how much more must it hold of Hebrew, which is properly taught to somewhat more advanced beginners only, in the teaching of which less time is spent, and in which to make merely insufficient and erroneous beginnings is most useless and preposterous! Considering the true object to be attained, how much useless toil and torture with Hebrew has been wasted during the last 300 years in the case often of thousands, who learnt it and yet did not learn it, or at most attained to boasting about it!

But then, it is one thing to write the grammar of such a language, as correctly and safely as one can at present be written, but another actually to learn or orally teach the language. Here the innumerably various necessities and mental gifts of the pupil and the teacher come into play: and nothing would be so preposterous as to wish to restrict the consequent necessary freedom. The teacher may most freely introduce further explanations, e. g. from the languages better known to us, and the shortest but most accurate, as to the great points upon which all depends, hand-book supplies him with the best opportunity. Although he would do well to spare no pains at starting in explaining the great fundamental points and the correct dismemberment of the whole subjectmatter, yet otherwise he is not bound to the order of subjects followed in the Grammar, and may begin teaching just as well with the mere examples (paradigms). I have intentionally limited these to those examples from which all others may easily be supplied, in order never to help mere convenience and laziness, which so readily creep in everywhere. These tables of examples are intended certainly for the memory, or rather to be able easily to see one's way in the plainer and more fundamental things, and conveniently glance over what is most

necessary: how much generally is to be committed merely to the memory, depends upon the pupil and must be left to the discretion of the enlightened teacher. Similarly every one who wishes to teach himself the language, may use the Grammar in the freest way. But this in the highest degree desirable freedom must be everywhere anticipated by that higher correctness, sureness and utility mentioned above.

In conclusion, it is known how much this sureness and utility, and this combination of scientific accuracy with ease of acquirement in all the numerous particulars, has lain upon my heart; and as I gladly read and thankfully used observations upon the previous editions, testifying of real love of the language, from several excellent teachers, every such discussion in reference to this edition also will be welcome to me.

Note. The translator would also call attention to the fact, that the 8th edition of the author's Ausführliches Lehrbuch appeared in 1869. This edition of one of the author's noblest works is greatly enlarged and improved in comparison with the 6th edition of 1855, and yet more in comparison with the much earlier edition of 1835, the basis of Dr. Nicholson's accurate translation.

The author's critique of the first volume of Dr. Justus Olshausen's Hebrew Grammar may be found in the Göttingische Gelehrter Anzeigen 1861, pp. 1804—1820, and in the Sprachwissenschaftliche Abhandlungen II, (Göttingen 1862).

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### TABLES AND EXAMPLES.

#### I. THE ALPHABET.

			con	ıp. <b>Ş</b> ç	sq.				
I.		2.	3∙		4.		5.		6.
8		$\supset$	٠		7		n		1
אָלָף		בֵיתּ	נָּמֶל		בלת.	٠.	הָא		ij
ålef		<i>b</i> êth	gimel	. 4	dáleth		hê	٠.,	vâv
7.		8.	9.	٠	10.	••	11.		I 2.
1		П	<u> </u>		7	•	٦,٦		5
וָנוֹן		חֵית	מים		יוד .		ַבַּף	,	לָמֵר
záin		<i>ch</i> êth	<i>ț</i> êț		* <i>j</i> ôd	, ,	<i>k</i> af		lámed
ı 3.		14.	15.		16.		17.	• • •	18.
ם,ם		ז,כ	0		ע		ם,ק		ץ,צ
מֵים		ברן	קַמֶּדְ .		עָיִן		MĐ		צָרֵי
<i>m</i> êm		<i>n</i> ûn	samek		<i>gh</i> ain		pé	*	* ssáde
	19.		20.		21.			22.	•
	P		٦	ぜ		7		ំង :	:
	ባነ <mark></mark> ጋ øôf		בילש rêsh	שין און געון		שלק מח		าตุ tâv	

<sup>\*</sup> German j = English y.

<sup>\*\*</sup> ss = the German ss in heisse, schweisse, and the English c in ice, nice. Trans.

Each of these 22 letters denotes the first letter composing it, as  $\exists i. e., b\hat{e}th$  denotes  $b, \exists g$  etc.; in reference to  $\aleph v. \$ 17$  sq., 58 sq.

The softer pronunciation of the 6 mutes, § 48, may be expressed by a following h, as and Metheg, or it may be left to the intelligent reader without an added sign, since the addition of a h is really very strong and often becomes quite burdensome, e.g. supposing one would represent the vajehi bhikhthobh.\*

The sign of the word-tone in this work is — i. e., Metheg, the most common sign of the kind, \$ 95. But since very many words have the tone upon the last syllable, in the case of these words it is generally omitted; on the other hand, it is always to be added when the tone is upon the penultima. If Metheg, acc. \$96, is to be added shortly before the tone from some special cause, as in בַּחָבוּ, comp. \$ 96, וֹעָמֵדוּ, יַעָמִדוּ, comp. \$ 96, 60 c, Metheg should be added with the last syllable also, to avoid mistake: however, this accuracy is not everywhere carried out in the printing of this book. — Amongst the moderns

is a common abbreviature for פֿלוני aliquis.

## II. EXAMPLES OF WORD-BUILDING. (PARADIGMS.)

All existing forms are not presented in the paradigms, which could not be done in a small space on account of their very great variety, but the more important and more frequent only, from which the rest can be easily supplied.

In the persons of the verb, in reference to the external form and ending, are distinguished: I. in the perf. 1) 3 sing. mas. stemform alone; 2) the person-endings beginning with vowels; as app is formed, so necessarily is in also; 3) the person-endings beginning with a consonant. If there is any thing special in these three classes different or worthy of further remark, it is added as 3<sup>b</sup>) 2<sup>c</sup>) etc.; to 3<sup>c</sup>) belongs the ending in also. — II. In the imperf.

1) the persons ending with the last radical; 2) the person-endings

<sup>\*</sup> In the translation  $\Pi$  alone is distinguished by the sign of aspiration, the distinction being so naturally represented by our th. Trans.

beginning with a vowel; 3) the person-endings beginning with a consonant. — In the tables of nouns\* denotes words formed according to undoubted analogy.

#### 1. TABLE OF NOUNS.

\$ 240 ad fin.

#### I. NOUNS OF THE FIRST FORM.

#### I. Of strong form.

		1.	2.	3∙
sg.		ָּיֶלֶ <b>ר</b>	מַתֶּר	בּפֶּר
- s	st. c.	<del></del> ,	_	
pl.		יְלָדִים	<b>סְתָרִים</b>	כְפָּרִים (בְּ־ָ)
- s	st. c.	ילְדֵי (וַ־)	ם <b>ל</b> וני	בּפְרֵי
du.		* וִלְקְים (נַ־)	<b>סטלו</b> ים	מָתְנֵיִם
- 8	st. c.	(וַ־) איַלְדֵּיוּ (יַ־)	סָתָרִי	כָּזְתָני
sg. f.		נַלְדָּה (יִ־)	סִתְּרָה	* גָּרְנָה
9	st. c.	יַלְדַּת (יִ־)	סַתָּרַת	*נְרָנַת
pl. f.		יָלָדות	ם הַרוּת	נְרַנוֹת (נְּ-)
9	st. c.	ילְדוֹת (יַ־)	סָתְרוֹת	נְּרָנת
du. f.		נַלְדָּתְוִם (וִר)	*סִתְּרָתִים	ַּגָּרְנָתְּיִם גַּרְנָתְיִם
:	st. c.	(בֹלְרָתֵי (יַר)	סְתְּרָתֵי	נְּרְנְתֵי

#### II. OF WEAK FORM.

#### 1. From Gutt.

-	. 110m Gath
	2 rad.
3∙ .	1. 2. 3.
עפֶר	פַער נַעַר
	קַחַת
ָעַפָּרִיְם	פַּעַלִים נַעַרִים
ָעָפ <u>ָר</u> י	פַעלי נערי
עַצְמַה	רָתַקָּה אַהַבָּה פַּּחִדָּה
	Gutt, as 3 rad. תְּבֶּח, in other respects regular. For 2 rad. א: בְּאַר, בְּאַר, and 3 rad. א: בָּיָא, דְּבָּא, דְּבָא, אַבֶּא, דְּבָא, אַבָּא, זישׁ, vid. § 186.
	עפֶר עפָריָם עפַריָם עפַרִי

#### 2. From 'y'y.

I.		2.	3⋅
<u>ڍ</u> خ	<b>تار</b>	¤⊓	PİN
נַלים		אָפוֹת	קקים
ַּבַּלֵי		אָפוּת	רובוי
נַּלָּה		טַה	חָקָּה

#### 3. From 'Yy.

	1.		3.	
ಬೆದಿ	לַיָּל שׁור	נר	שוק	
מות	קיל			
שְׁוָרִים	הְיָשִׁים מוּתִים	לֵילות	יִשנְקִים	שוקות
שורי	יחָישֵׁי מוחָי	בילות	ישוקו	
	אַיבָים		* שוקים	
	עיבי		שוקי	
מותָה	צֵירָה		שוקה	
מותַח	צָידַת			
	אַיָנות			
	עֵינות			

#### 4. From ל'ה'.

I.		3.
ישָׁרוּ יְשִׁכִּי		בְּהוּ וְפִּי וְפִי
קצוים שקבים		וַבָּב וָפָּוִים
(שְׁבֵיִי (שְׁבֵיִי	לַלְנֵינ	(າາອາງ)
לְחָיֵיִם לְחֵיי		
(שְבִיָה) שִׁבְיָה	שָׁנָה'	* יָפְיָה
		1
ָשִׁבְיַת <i>ּ</i>	บวัฒ่	
אָבְיוּת		
בַּלְנוֹת בַּלְנוֹת	קצוח,	1
••	n	

II. NOUNS OF THE SECOND FORM: and those like them, as Dipp, rad. Dip.

## \$ 187.

# I. OF STRONG FORM.

r b.	לבב נכר	ביר לבע נה	ָ	: : נו	•			לבנות	לבנות	•		
	, (a)		-	•	tonic a	d.				'תְּמְבֵּלוּנִי, תַּ	Dy etc.	
4	בְתוּב נְּדוֹל	'n	מ	etc.	with the pretonic a	shortened	or Surface:		מיקה .	pl. चार्यूय, पूर्वित etc.		
÷	<u> </u>	ر د از	ָ װְלִים		with					אָמָל	p. Iq.	
	ממני	שָׁמִּנוּ	<u>שְּׁמִבוֹיִם</u>	מָבוני,				נית		בְּרֶכוֹה		
6.	<b>⊅</b> !	ان ايت	ָ בְּיִּ	ָבָ נְבָי	ָרָני הַיִּי	ŭ. Ł,	5		וקתני	וקתני	ָּרְבְּרָיִים בְּרְבְּרָבְיִים	בי
-	<u> </u>	<u>L</u> ;	4						·•-			
·	ָהָבְּי בְּיִבְּיִבְּי	Į.	ישרים ישרים	ישני, ישני	ָם הַנְשְׁיָּ	٠ ا	ישרר. ישרוי	יַשְׁרֵה, יַשְׁי	ישרות י	יְשֶׁרוֹח, יַשְׁי	ישרבים	ישרבי ישרבי
	sg.	- st. c.	pl. m.	st. c.	du.	- st. c.	sg. f.	st. c.	pl. f.	st. c.	du. f.	st. c.

I.

#### II. OF WEAK FORM.

#### 1. with Gutt.

ıb.

<b>הַ</b> כָּם	ಸದೆಸ	יָרֵא	ישָמוּעַ	קרוא	שַּׂעָר
עובכם	אָמָא	יָרֵא	שמוע	קרוא	שָׂעַר, שְׂעַר
הַבָמִים	צְמָאִים	וְרֵאִים	1	שמעיב	שָעָרִים
בוּלְמֵי	צִמְאֵי	ירָאֵי	etc.	•	שַּׁעַרֵי
אַרָמָה		בְּהֵמָה			שַּׂעָרָה
אַדְמַת		בַּהֶמַת			שַּׂעָרַת
אַרָמות	צְבָאוֹת	בְּהֵמוֹת		,	שְּׂעֶרוּת
אַרמות	צֹבְאוֹת	בַּרְהַמוֹת			שַּׂעַרות
	From 'i'		3. From	ע'ע'.	4. From 'נ'נ'.
ו. 2. 3. יָפֶּה	4. בלוי	5. ומו		ı ⊐ö	ם ז B.
יָבֶּי. יְפַּה	בלוי	נָקי נָקי	י בול בקל	תַבּב	בקם <sub>2</sub> בקם <sub>2</sub>
יָבָּים יָפָּים	ג לרים	נָקנִים זיו	1/2		3 קום
ָיָבָּ בּ יָפֵּי	etc.	ייאו. די נקני	ים	ಶಿಕ	קום 4
ָיַפַּיִם יַפַּיִם	as	·1; <u>:</u>	1	ট্রা <u>ট্র</u>	ן קים קים <sub>4</sub>
וְפֵּינ הַבְּי	כַּתוּב			<del></del> .	all with un-
יָפָּה	· · ·	נְקִיָּה			changeable long
יָפַּת		TI* :	ה	ත්ව	vowels.
יַפות		ָ נְלָ <b>וּו</b> ת	etc. a	S	
יְפוֹת		נְקִיות		<u>د</u> ِ ځ	
יפתים			l		

#### III. Nouns with stable first syllable.

comp. § 188.

#### 1. with $\bar{e}$ in the last syllable.

sg. m. 1)	כוטכ	זעַם	שֹׁמֵע	קרא	מִקפָּר	מוֹבֹע	מרבץ
st. c.		זעם	שׁמַע	קרא	מִסְפַּר	מוֹכֿע	מְרַבַץ
pl. m.	ז כַּחָבִים	וֹעֲמִים			מַקמְרִים	•	
st. c.	כַּטָבֵי	וֹעֲמֵי			מַסְמְרֵי		
1. sg. f.	תוּעָכָה				מוּקרָה	מַהְפֵּכָה	
st. c.	הוּעַבַת				מוֹקרַת	מַהְפֵּכַת	
2 and st. c.	ז כִּעַבֶּת	וֹעֱמֶה	שׁמְעַת	i	ದಶಿಸಿದ		
1. pl. f.	חועבת				<b>ಬ</b> ,⊐ಸೆಶ		
st. c.	תוֹעֲבׂת						
2 and st. c.	ז כֹתְבוּת	וֹעֲמוּר					

Likewise עוֹר and all participles in e,

#### 2. with $\bar{a}$ in the last syllable.

עוּלָם <sup>2</sup> )	נלשׁב	מִסְפָּר	[	,
עולם	נלָחֵב	מִסְפַּר	تدنا	
עֹלָמִים	נְכְהָבִים		<u>הַיוּן</u>	
עלְמֵי	יבְהְבִי	,	דַּיָּנִים	
	נְרָמֶּבָ <i>ה</i>		יַבַיּנָני	בֿנלו
	נְלַהְ <b>טְ</b> כַּת			
הֹתֶקת	נ <b>ַב</b> מֶּבֶת	כוֹאֲפַּׁחַת	בַּוֹגָת	
הֵיכָלות	נֹכֹטַבוּת			
היכלות	נכתבות			

Likewise all participles in a.

<sup>1)</sup> שָׁם ( זְּעָרָה ,שִׁנָה \$ 238 follow the form of the final syllable.

יב (ליה' 149 follows the form of the final syllable. From נְּיָר : לֹיְה' 149 follows the form of the final syllable. From בּוֹלֶה : לֹיִה' בּיִר בּיִּה ,מְקְנֶה אַ מְנֶה ,מִקְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיְרָנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנֶה ,מִיּרְנָה ,מִיּרְיה ,מְיִיּיה ,מְיִיּיה ,מְיִיּיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מְיִייה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מִיּיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיּרְנְה ,מְיּרְיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מְיִיה ,מִיּרְיה ,מְיְיה ,מְייה ,מִייְרְיה ,מִייְרְיה ,מְיִיה ,מְיּרְיה ,מְיְרְיה ,מִייְרְיה ,מְיירְיה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מְיירְיה ,מְירְיה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מְיייה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מִייה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מְייה ,מִייה ,מִייה ,מְייה ,מְייה ,מ

#### 3. Nouns in |-,||-

אַלְמָן	ָּכֶרוּן.
אַלמן	וֹבְרָוּן
אַלְמָנִים	זכרנים
אַלְמְנֵי	וְכְרֹנֵי
אַלְמָנָה	
אַלְמָנות	וָכְרנות
אַלְמְנוּת	כרנות

#### IV. ADIECTIVES IN : ...

נְכְרִים or נֶכְרִים נֶכְרִים נֶכְרִיּם נֶכְרִיּם נֶכְרִיּם נֶכְרִיּוּת נֶכְרִיּוּת נֵכְרִיּוּת נֵכְרִיּוּת נֵכְרִיּוּת

## 2. THE VERB.

## I. STRONG VERB.

INDLES OF VERDS.
Nifal ('נְנְהְפָּבְ ('נְנְהְפָּבְ ('נְנְהְפָּבְהִ ('נְנְהְבְּהָ ('נְנְהְבְּהָ ('נְנְהְנְהָ ('נְנְהְנְהָ ('נְנְהְנְהָ
Hofal (בְּהְמְבָהְ (בְּהְהְמְבָהְ ("בְּהְהְמְבָהְ ("בְּהְהְמְבָהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהְ ("בְּהְהְתְּהָ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּבְיהְ ("בְּהְהְתָּבְיה ("בְּהְהְתָּבְיה ("בְּהְהְתָּבְיה ("בְּהְהְתָבְּיה ("בְּהְהְתָבְּיה ("בְּהְהְתָבְּיה ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְיבְּיה ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיה ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּבְיהְ ("בְּהְבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיה ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְּיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְּיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְ ("בְּבְיבְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְיהְ
Hif-11  (¹ רְבְמִּיבָר (' רְבְמִּיבָר (' רְבְמִּיבָר (" רְבְמִּבְמָּ (" רִבְמַבְמָּ (" רִבְמַבְמָּ (" רִבְמַבְמָּ (" רִבְמַבְמָּ רִבְמָּרְמָּ רִבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמָּבְנִיּ וּרְבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמָבְמָּ וּרְבְמָבְמָ וּרְבְמַבְמָּ וּרְבְמָבְמָ וּרְבְמָבְמָ וּרְבְיִּמְבְמָ וּרְבְיִי וּרְבְיִּמְבְמָ וּרְבִּיי וּרְבְיִּמְבְמָ וּרְבִיּמְ וּרְבִיּמְ וּרְבְיִּמְ וּרְבִיּי וּרְבְיִי וּרְבִיּמְ וּרְבִיּי וּרְבִיּמְיִבְּיִי וּרְבְיִּי וּרְבִיּי וּרְבִיי וּרְבִי וּרְבִיי וּרְבְייי וּרְבְיִי וּרְבְיי וּרְבְייי וּבְּייי וּבְּייי וְבְּייי וּבְּיי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וּבְּיי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייִי וְבְּייי וְבְייי וְבְּייי וְבְּייי בְּייי וְבְּייִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי וְבְּייי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִייְיְיִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִייְיְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיְיִייְיְיְיִייְיְיְיִייְיְיְיְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיְיִייְיִייְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְייִייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְייייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיייְיִייְייִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיִייְיִייְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְייִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְיִייְיְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיִיייְיְיִייְיְיִייְיְיְיִייְייִייְיִייְיִייְיִייְיְיִייְייְ
Hithpael (* הִתְפַמִּבְתְּ (* הִתְפַמִּבְתָּ (* הִתְפַמִּבְתָּ (י" הִתְפַמַּבְתָּ (י" הִתְפַמַּבְתָּ וֹ (י" הִתְפַמַּבְתָּי
Pual ('حوبد المراج ('حوبد الم
Piel ('جַתֵּב ('جַתְּבָה '( 'جַתְּבָה '( 'جַתְּבָה '( 'خַתְּבְתָּה '( '' جַתְּבָתָּ '( '' جַתְּבָתָ
دار (جيمار ) (ديمير ) (ديمير ) (جيمير ) (ديمير
intrans. (پورځ ښو (پورځې ( ښو پورځې ( ښو پورځې ( په پورځې ( په پورځې ( پور( <sup>ش</sup> ورځې (
( <sup>1</sup> چېد ( <sup>1</sup> چېد ( <sup>2</sup> چېدې ( <sup>3</sup> چېدې ( <sup>3</sup> چېدې ( <sup>3</sup> چېدې ( <sup>3</sup> چېدې ( <sup>3</sup> چېدې
Perf. sg. 3 m 2 m 2 m 1. pl. 3 2 m 2 m 1.

							II.	Weak	5
Perf.	•	(	<b>Qal</b>		Pi	el	F	Pual	
1.	ום פ'י	יִלְרְנֶּ <sup>3c</sup> )	-						
2.		ر <sub>عد</sub> ظ فائد) (د ظفافه (د ظفافه (د ظفافه علام)	(³מֲמָּה	בוש <sup>1</sup> ) ( <sup>2</sup> בְּוֹשָׁה ( <sup>3</sup> בִּשְׁחָם ( <sup>3</sup> בָּשְׁחָם	(Pi	קומם	I	olal קוֹמָם Pual e wis	
3. 1	ע'ע	סֿכִּטֵּם סֿכּוּט סֿכּ		ָלְבְּה (לְבְּהָ הָלְבְּוֹתָ (לְבְּוֹתָ		סובב ס קלקל קלקל		סובַב קַלְקַל	
4. T	ל'ר		נינְּלָה (2נְלְחֵה (3נְלְיִתְ (3נְלִיתֶם)		ּנְלֵיתָ	( <sup>1</sup> ּגְּלֶּה ( <sup>2</sup> ּגְּלְּיִתָ, ( <sup>2</sup> ּגְלִיתָ,		בְּלָּהְ (2 בְּלָתָה (3 בְּלֵיתָ (42 בְּלִרָּ	)
5. gr	ad.	אַמִּךְו <sup>3c</sup> )		•					
sec. 1	rad.	וַעֲמָר <sup>2</sup> )			תַבְ <sup>1</sup> ) וְעַמָר <sup>2</sup> )		ַן זְעַם <sup>(1</sup> זְעַם זְעַמָּה <sup>(2</sup> )	בַרַךְּ	İ
tert.		ַזע, שָׁבֵּזע <sup>(35</sup> שָׁלְרַוֹּ)	تَشْ <sub>1</sub> )		שׁלְחַףְ שׁלֵחַף (³)	(יִשְׁלַּח		( <sub>3P</sub> क्रेद्रें <u>ज</u>	
6. '8	ثات 1 ئ	י ( <sup>3</sup> נְלָא <sup>ּ</sup> ( <sup>36</sup> קְרָא <sup>ּ</sup> קרָא <sup>ּ</sup> קרָא <sup>ּ</sup>	$\Box$ מאט $\dot{a}_{3c})$	·	פֿלָאטֿס (נָּ פֿלָאט (נָּ פֿלָאט פֿלָא פֿלָא	( <sup>1</sup> פַּלָּא		( <sub>2</sub> פֿלָאטֿם ( <sub>9</sub> פֿלָאט (פֿלָאט (הַפֿלָא)	
7. T	קיו	ر <sub>3</sub> دَرْطَ	etc.				8. 'J'Đ		

Verbs.

Hithpael	F	Iif - îl	Hof-al	Nif - al
_	В.	רווליר	etc. הולר	נולָד etc.
	A.	etc.		
Hithpalel)		(וֹתֵקִים	( <sup>1</sup> הוּקַם	(¹ נָסוּג
התקומם		הָקִימָה $^2$ )	רוּקְמָהְ <sup>2</sup> )	(² נָסוְגָה
Hitḥpael		نيامان $\hat{u}_3$ )	(³ הוקקת	(³נְסוּגְׁתָ
e	ָּוֹלִילָ <u></u> עָ	ָרְ רָבְקְמְתָ, רָּבְ	( <sub>3c</sub> הוַקְמְחֶם	( <sup>3c</sup> נְקֹנוֹתֶּןם
ָה <b>ִ</b> סְּמֹבַב	מַמָּה יַבְּמַה		הוּמָב	נֹמֵב or נָמָב
r	(²הֵםֱכָּה²)	וַמְבָּה or הַמְבָּ	הוסבה	נָמַבָּה (²נָסְבָּה
רָתָּקּלְקַל	ַ הַסִבּוֹתָ	3)	רוּסַבְּתָ	رْنَاتَت <sub>َا</sub> ءً)
	 -			
(¹ הָתְנַּלָּה	, הָגְלָה	(' הֶגְלָה	(יֹהָגְלָה	(וֹ נְנְלָה
(² הִתְנַּלְתָה	, , ,	( <sup>2</sup> הִגְּלְתָּה	(2 הָנְלְחָה	(2נְנְלְתָה 2)
(³ הָתְנֵּלְיתָ	ָּהִנְלֵיִם,	, ,	(³ הָגְלֵיתָ	(³ נְגְלֶיתָ , נְגְלֵיתָ
( <sup>2b</sup> הָחָגַּלוּ	7 (6	( <sup>26</sup> הְנְלוּ	(ביינלו (מיינלו	( <sup>2b</sup> נגלו (2b)
•	•	•	,	
		ר ֶרֶעֶמִיר ( <sup>1</sup> הֶעֶמִיר	רָקְעָמַר <sup>1</sup> )	(נְעָמֵר
		רבעֱמֶידָה <sup>2</sup> )	רָעָמְרָה ²)	(ג'עָמְרָה ²)
		ر پرپورتاره $^3$ )	ָהָעֶבְקרָהָ ³)	(³ پُرْپُرْمْلُەن
הְתְּבָּרֵךְ (¹הְזָּאֵם				
			$^2$ ېږېرېر $^2$	(²נְוְ <u>צַ</u> מְה ²)
הְשְׁפֵּלֵח הִשְׁפַלֵּח		(יְהִשְׁמִעַ <sup>1</sup> )	,	
(מי השְׁהַלַּחַהְ		(אַמְעַהְ <sup>3b</sup> הִשְׁמְעַהְ	ر (چېتارن <sub>3</sub> ه	( <sup>36</sup> زېم <u>ر</u> پې
(¹ הַּחְפַּלָּא		רָהִפְּלִיא ( <sup>1</sup> הָפָּלִיא	הָפְּלָא	נִפְּלָא
(³הָהְתָּפַּלֵּאָתָ		(³הפְלֵאתָ	ָהָפָּל <b>ֵא</b> ָת	נפָּלֵאָתָ
(יַּהָתְפַּלֵאת (אַת		( <sup>36</sup> הפְלאת	הָפָלֵאת	נפָלֵאת
(ינּהָתְפַּלֵאתֶם)	2	( <sup>3c</sup> ָהִפְּלֵאתֶנ	הָפְּלֵאתֶם	נפָלאהָם
.		etc.	etc. الله وtc.	etc.

#### TABLES OF VERBS.

I. STRONG VERB.\*

וויים אלי יקמב (י' יקמב (ין יקמב (ין יקמב (ין יקמב (ין יקמב (ין יקמב (ין יקטב (יקטב יקבת (ין יקטב (יקטב יקבת (ין יון יקמב (ין יון יקמב יקבת יקמב (יון יון יקמב יקבת ייקמב ייק
Hof-al (* לְבְפָּב (יוֹ) פְּבְפָּב (יוֹ) פְּבְפָּב (יוֹ) פְּבְפְּב (יוֹ) פְּבְפְּב (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ) פְּבְפְבָנ (יוֹ)
וו-Hift (² יַרְפִּיב פּרְפִּיב (° פּרְפִּבִי (ין) צִּרְפִּינ (° פּרְפִּבָּי (וְן) 'פַרְפֵּבָי (וְן) 'פַרְפֵּבָי (וְן)
Hithpael (¹ יִתְבַמֵּב (¹ יִתְבַמֵּב (¹ יִתְבַמֵּב (יוֹ) מִתְבַמֵּב (יוֹ) אָתְבַמֵּב (יוֹ) אָתְבַמֵּב (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ) מִתְבַמְּבי (יוֹ)
Pual ("נְהָמְּבְ מְּנְהָמְבְ (ין) מְּנְהְמְבִ (ין) מְנְהְמְבִ (ין) מְנְהְמְבִ (ין) מְנְהְמְבִן (ין) מְנְהְמְבִן (יון)
דופו (' וְבַמֵּב מְבַמֵּב מְבַמֵּב ('מְבַמְּבִי (יוֹ) צִּיבַמֵּב ('מְבַמְבָנָה (וֹן) מְבַמְבָנָה (וֹן) מְבַמְבָנָה (וֹן)
intrans.i انجوا بهدر انجودر ارکودر انجود ا
רמם (יייקה: (יייקה: (יייקה: (יייקה: (יייאקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה: ("יייקה:
Imperf.  sg. 3 m.  - 2 m.  - 1.  pl. 3 m.  - 2 m.  f.  f.  f.

\* The imperf. of weak verbs p. 14 sq.

STRONG VERB.\*

Nif-al (¹ بچټر ر²	ל" הבְּתֵב ל* הבָּתְבֶי הבָּתְבֶי	("רְבְּהְנְנְהְ ("אַבְּהְנְרָ ("וַיְּבְּהֵב וַיִּבְּהָב	( البديدية
Hif-ii (' <u>ਾ</u> ਟ੍ਰਜ਼ੂਟ	נ³ הַבְּמֵּב (⁴ הַבְּחִּיבִי הַבְּחֵּיבוֹ	נ" בְּנְהֵּנְנְּהְ ("אַנְהְּנְּרָה ("צַנְהָנֵה	( ֶּנְרְבְּנַפִּבָּיָם
Hithpael    Iike Piel   yid. further	above		
Piel 1)	ੱਵਗੁਟ ਫੁਰੂਟ (*ਫੁਰੂਟ੍ਰਾਂ ਫੁਰੂਟ੍ਰਾਂ	נ" שַּמְּבְיָרָה ("אֲצִיּקִיבְּוָּה ("אֵצִיּקִבְּוָּה	בי. היי
intrans.	ĽÝŤ.		ונדלה
£ &	s. m. s.g. m. s.g. ("בְּחָבִי, בְּחָבִי . 1. ח. lq ("בַּחָבִי, בְּחָבִי . m. lq	(° ئۆتۈند (° ئۆتۈند (° ئۆتۈند	( <sup>8</sup> נְבָתַבְהָּ
Qal sg. m. trans.	sg. m. f. f.	- f. 1 sg. 3 sg. m.	2 sg. m.
Qal Voluntative 3 sg. m. trans.	Imperative —	Cohortative Vav cons. imp.	Vav cons. perf.

\* These forms of the weak verbs p. 16 sq.

						II.	Weak
Imperf.	_	al					
I. "D	A ביישׂב (ג'יישׂב (ג'יישׂב (ג'יישׂב						
		(2 מֵלְדִי	(יאכֵר)				
	(3 תִּימַבְנָה ³)	שַׁלְרָנָה				·	
2. 'I'Y	trans.		ntrans.		lel	:	Polal
	(יַקוּם		( ְנֵבוּשׁ, נָב		י <b>לומ</b> ם		יַקומַם
	יקןמו <sup>2b</sup> )		רָ מָּבְאָי ²)	as P		İ	i
	(יָקמוּן)		(³חָבאֵינָה³)		Lik	e	wis
	( <sup>3</sup> חְקוּמֵינָה		(מְּכְאנָה)				ł
3. 'V'V	(1 יָסֹב		(י <u>יק</u> ל		יְסוֹבֵב	1	יְסוּבָב
	יִם בּוּ		(2 מֵקְלִי <sup>2</sup>		o		
	(יְסַבּוּן)		(³ מְּלְלֵינָה		יָקּלְקַל		יָבָלְבַּלְ
	( <sup>3</sup> מְּסֻבֶּינָה						
4. 17.5	(יִנְלֵה				(יְנֵלֶּה		(¹ יָנְלֶּרה
	(יִגְלֵיוּן) יִגְרִ <sup>(2b</sup> )			:	( <sup>2</sup> תנלי	•	(2 חבלי
	( <sup>3</sup> חִּגְלֵינָה			;	( <sup>3</sup> תְּנְלֵינֶר		(3 תנלינה <sup>3</sup> )
s outt. T	(¹ יַרְומֹר. יַעֲמֹ	יֶרְוַנַק	( <sup>1</sup> ֶירְּוֹםֵר				
pr. rad.	רי <sup>2</sup> ) אַנְמָדִי	(² מֶּתֶוֹקוּ	'- : w /				
1	(חַּעָמִרי)	(מֶּרְוֹּלֵי)					
	(אַעֲמֹד (16)	. 1.: 1 4.					
	( <sup>3</sup> מְּעֲכִּרְנָה	(3 החוקנה					1
sec rad	יוְעַם, יוְעם <sup>1</sup> )	11 4 2.16		יְזַעָם	(יְּבֶרֵהְ	זעם	(וֹיְבֹרַרְ יִ
	רבין. ( <sup>2</sup> חָוְעָמִי חִּוְ			יבְּלָּרֵי (בְּיִנְעָמִי (בְּיִרָּ	1.47 : 7	וועמי	2)
.±6',	14. TE:11.			( <sup>3</sup> הְוַעְמְנָה ( <sup>3</sup>		ְוְבֻּבְיִי 	• /
	ו. יִשָּׁלֵח <sup>1</sup> )				-L. 1\	<del> </del>	
tert. rad			į	יִשׁלֵח			
	( <sup>3</sup> פּשְׁלַחְנָה (				( <sup>3</sup> מְשַׁלֵּחָ	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
6. ל'א'	713.				(וְיָפַלֶּא	1 73	(יפלא יו
	(³ הִּקְרֵֵאנָה (			ָה ָּה	(, שַׁפַּלֵּאנֹ ( <sub>3</sub> )	:	( <sup>3</sup> חָפָּלֶאנָר
ק. 'צ' פ	יִפֿל יִנְצֹר	יָגַש	ימן:		,		1
	li	ke <b>'''</b> D not	t intrans.		·		j.
							•

Verbs.

veros.	Hif-îl	Hof-al	Nif-al
	B. יוליד A. יַמָּיב etc.	יוּלֵד etc.	יוָלֵר (נְיַלֵּר ) etc אָנְלֵר (נִייִּלֵר ) etc
Hithpalel	-		-
יָתְקוֹמֶם	(וֹ יָקִים	( <sup>1</sup> יוּקַם	( <sup>1</sup> יִפוּג
	ן ( <sup>2</sup> הָּקָימִי (	(²חוְקְמִי	ר <sup>2</sup> פִּפוֹנִי
· <b>е</b>	(חָּבִקְימְנָה) (חָבִקְמְנָה)	( <sup>6</sup> הוקקנה	אָנְה <sup>3</sup> )
יִסְחוֹבֵב	(יַּיָמֶב	(1 יוּסֶב	( <sup>1</sup> יִּסֹב יִסַב
r	( <sup>2</sup> מָּמֵבִּי	(² תּוּמְבִּי	ישָפַבִּי <sup>2</sup> )
יִ <b>תְ</b> קַּלְקַל	( <sup>3</sup> מְּסִבֶּינָה	( <sup>3</sup> מְּסַבֵּינָה	( <sup>3</sup> הִּמְבְנָה
יִתְנֶלֶה	ר <u>ינְ</u> גֶלָה ' ( <sup>1</sup> יַנְגֶלָה '	(בְּיָנְלֶה	רי יִגָּלֶה <sup>1</sup> )
فأطةكم	(²תַּנְלִי ²)	(² הָנְלִי (²)	(² מִנָּלִי
הָּחְגָּלֶנָה	(³ חַּנְּלֶינָה	(³ מָּגְלֵינָה	(נְּהַנְּלֶנָה
	יַעַמִיר etc.	ַ יִעְמַד <sup>1</sup> ) הָעָמָדִי <sup>2</sup> )	יַעְמֵר etc
		,	·
		(לּ הָּעָשְרְנָה (	
יִתְבָּרֵךְ. יִזַּעֵם		( <sup>2</sup> חָּוְעַמִי	יוָצָם הּוָּצַמִי
(, שִׁטְבָּלֵרְנָנָה a)	הַּוְעֲמְנָה		טּוָעְמְבָּה
יִשְׁתַּלֵּחַ	(1 יַשְׁמִיעַ		יִשָּׁלַח, יִשָּׁלַחַ
יִשְׁתַּלֵּח	(3 תַּ שְׁמֵעְנָה ³)		הִשָּׁלְּחְנָה
(יִיִּתְּפַּלָּא ¹)	(יַפְלִיא	(וֹ יָפַּלָא	יָפָּלָא
("חָחָפַּלֵאנָה	(³ תַּפְּלֵאנָה ³)	( <sup>3</sup> מָּפְּלֵאנָה)	הַּפָּלֵאנָה
	etc. יְנִישׁ etc.	יגש	יַנָּג'ש

						II. Weak
1. ツラ	A. יצׂק	רש ַ	B. לֵר,	ן ( <sup>3</sup> לְדָה		
•		יְצָקִי	לְדֵי	4)		, i
			לַרְנָה	5)		
	וּוֹצֶר	בווימׄב;	<u>ו</u> נילב	<sup>7</sup> )		
2. TY		(בְּיָבֶ	عد	ָיָכ יָכ		1
and	קִמנָה	( <sup>2</sup> פֿ				
3. 'Y'Y		( ه څر		d d		
	יָמָי	(* קו	ָ <u>ב</u> ּי	· .		
ī	מְנָה קְמְנָו	(S.)	בֶּינָה			
	קוְמָה	(° אָ	<b>סְבָ</b> ה	i	***	
		(a) <sup>7</sup> )	סָב		ויכוגן. <u>יי</u>	
ל' <b>ה'</b> 4.	יִרְרְּבְּ. גְּלֵרוּ,	. 'ت <u>ارڅ</u>	יגל,	(בְּנְלֵּנ (בְּנְלִנִּלְיִ	('יְנֵבְל	1 . 9.
		<sup>3</sup> )		("נְּלָי ה	53, 5.4	( <sup>3</sup> נַלֵּה
	נְלֵינָה	<sup>5</sup> )	i 7\	( <sup>6</sup> אָנְלֵה (	(⁴נֵּלֶי 	(5 גַּלֶּינָה
	١٦٠١٠		יָנֶל <sup>ז</sup> ְיָנֶל <sup>8</sup> )	like <sup>1</sup> )	וִינֵל יילים	
		וְנָלֵיתָ			וְגָלִיתָ	
5. gutt.	אָעמר,		אָמר,	(, נֿעוֹל		
1. rad	. עִמְדִי,		אָמְרִי,	(⁴ הַוְּקִי		
2. rad	•	ןעֹם <sup>3</sup> )		וַעַמִי (5 זַעַמִי 5		
3. rad	.•	(⁴ אֲלַח		(4 שַלְחִי	( <sup>3</sup> שַׁלַּח	רַוְיַשַׁלַח (בּוְיַשַׁלַּח
6. ליאי		( <sup>3</sup> ָקרָא				יְפַלֵּא) etc.
ק. 'צ' פ'נ'	נצר	ַגַש,	lui,	(3 מְנָה		
		נשי	(⁴ ְתְּנִי	1		

Verbs. (See p. 13.)

\ 1 3/		1		
	عَشِي	ר <sup>י</sup> וּיִּוֹלֶּד		
	(¹ וַלָּבֶם (⁴ הָבֵּמְנָה (⁴ הָבֵּמְנָה (⁴ הָבַמְנָה (۴ הָבַמְנָה (זוַיָּבֵם	(s וֹנַבַּלְּקִיםُ	(³ הִפוּגי (⁴ הִפוּנִינִה (⁵ הִפְּנְנָה	
	יַרְבְּ הַגְּלֵה יַרְבְּ וַיַּרְבְּ וְהִגְּלֵיתִ	ני יֵנֶל (יֹתְנֶל (יַתְּנְלֵנָה (יוֹנֵינֶל	ן וְנְגְלֵיתָ (* וְנְגְלֵי (* הָגָּלִי (* וְנְגְלֵי	(, בִּנְּלֶתָּנִי
	(³ וְהָעֻמִרְהָּ בּוְעַם ³)		(יַּנִילֶּחֶם	
	יַיִּיְאַב ( <sup>3</sup> הַשְׁלֵח	ויַ שְׁלֵח ( <sup>ז</sup> וַיִּשְׁלֵּח	ر <sub>د</sub> نَاهُمَرَ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ اللهِ عَنْ ال	
	et (יַפְלָא ) et		יַפָּלֵא (¹ יִפָּלֵא et	c.

Part. act.	a מָבְּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בְּקּחוּב (בּקּחוּב (בּקחוּב בּקחוב (בּקח	Qal.	intrans. (יְּגְּדֵל בָּרָל (יַנְּדֵל (בְּרָל		3. Infinitives  Piel  בּהַבַּהַ  , בֹהַּ  קבּהַבּרָ  Weak	
r. יוֹים	aA. יְצׂר b יָצׂר	בלרה B. יָלור	לָרֶת		·	
2. 'ו'ע	a קום קום b		אור		ומִם	P
	כ קם d סור		מת		קומם	ې
3. 'V'V		סב סבב	קל		or לְבַּלְ וַבַּלְבָּלָ	
4. ל'ה'	<del></del>	נְלוֹת ,נְלוֹ	נָלוּת		לות לה בלה	1
5. Gutt. pr. rad.	a אָעמוד,	אָמר	נֿינֿל			
tert. rad.	a שְׁלֹחַ b שׁוֹלַחַ c שׁוֹלַחַ				שֵלֵח שֵׁלֵחַ שֵׁלֵחַ מְשֵׁלֵחַ	Ž
6. 'N'D	פְּלֹא	etc.			פַלא	
7.· <b>'</b> '∫'Ð	a גיצר, b גָנצר,	,נְפֿל	נְגוֹשׁ, גָנִוֹשׁ,	לעון טט		

1 articipies	)•				19
Pual	Hithpael.	Hif-fl	Hof-al	Nif-a	ıl
كَنْحَ()	(پ ئىئدَقت	הַכְּמִיב	<sup>3</sup> ټږمِ <u>د</u>	(₃ نَاڎِتِد	
—, ⊅ักจุ	<b>––, ⊃ਂਜ</b> −	הַכְהֵב	רָכְמֵב	,,-תב,-	נְכָּחֹב
<b>⊐</b> ಀಁ>ಁಙಁೢ	⊐ ಬೌತ್ ಬೆಹ್ವ)	מַכְתִּיב		(, <sub>3</sub> , ذَخُفُت	•
	•		چې , چېچې <u>د</u>		
Roots.		a. B. הוֹלִיד			
		A. הֵיטִיב	הוּלֵר		רוּנְלֵר
		c. B. מוֹלִיד			•
		מישיב.A	·		נולָד
			מוּלָר d		<b>,</b>
קומם	הָתְקוֹמֵם	רָקִים (2	(³ הוּקם		רִסוֹג
		רָקַם	·		
מְקוּמָם	מהקומם	(² מֵקִים			(בְּסוֹג
or	or		<sup>3,</sup> ) מוּקם		
קַלְקַל	<b>הִתְּפַלְפֵ</b> ל	התר	(הָשַּׁמָּה) הוּסַב	רָפַב	
기드위도	, k: {k'',	רַכָּ	7011 (11561)	ָרָהָפֶּב, רָהָפֶב,	
	<b>ִ</b> מִּתְבַּלְלֵקּל	700	in t		
מָקָלָק <b>ּל</b>	\\\:\\\\:\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	מֵםֵב		۰٬ ثَعْد	(²נָםֶב
			מוּסָב		
נְּלִות	הָתְגַּלות	הַגְלוּת	הָגְלוּת	הָנָלה	-ות
וְּלֵה	החנלה	הַגְלֵה	הָנְלֵה	ה <b>נ</b> ַל ה	
	ۻ۬ؠڐۣڕؘؘؘ۠ٮ	מַגֶּלֶה		נְנְלֶה	
מְגֶלֶּה			מָגְלֶה		
				הַעָּמֵר,	
				c. גֵעֶמָר,	נַעָמָר
	like Piel	הַשְּלִיתַ		'ٺھُڙت	-לַח
	•	הַשְּׁלֵחַ	הָשְׁלֵחַ		
`	etc.				
			רַוּפִּיל	ناؤتا	
,			1	c. נטֿו	
<b>10</b> 0. A					••

<sup>\*)</sup> Acc. p. 9—15 and \$\$ 168 sq., 236 sq. — 1) denotes the inflexion according to the *first* form, 2) that acc. to the *second*, 3) that acc. to the *third* of the first class and 3,) that acc. to the *third* of the second class.

# 4. VERB WITH SUFFIXES. \$ 253 ad fin. I. With the perf.

.ld چ چېچه	בְּהָבוִינוּ		ָהָלוֹיָר הְּתְּלוֹיִי	فهربه	ַהְנְבְּוּךְ	ָ הַתְּהָיָּ הַיְּהָיִיּ	הְנְיהֵים היים	יר היני	יְּהְתְנִינֵם	ָּהְנְנְיָנֻן הְּתְנִינֵן	נירוני.	likewise with the	1 and 2 pers. plur		בְתַבְפוּ בְתַבְנוּ
. ا ع جَرَادِبَر. ا ع عَدَرَادِبَر. ا	Ë	ָהַבְּהַיּנוּ הַתַּבְּהַיּנוּ	בְּתַבְּמָּיִתְ	چوچښا	בְּתַבְּשִּׁינִי	40164	בתבפים -	קַבְהָיוּ	שַרַיִּהְעָם פְּרָיִהְיָּעָם	ָרְנְיִםְיָּנָן בְּרָנְהִיּנָן	ער הרפילי הרבי היים היים היים היים היים היים היים הי	The suffixes to the Persons of all	Verbal - stems:	ָהַפְּרָהָירָוּי הַפְּרָהְיִרוּיִּ	
. קַבְרָבָּ	or چِתְבְּמָרוּי	בְּתַבְּפּוֹ	י בינה ויינה ו היינה ויינה desunt		כְּתַבְתְּנִי	בְּתְבְּנְּם הַתְבְּנָם	עריבון היביבון	desunt		בְתַבְמָנֵיּ	The suffixes to	Verb	رمريد ا	etc.	
.gs ع ئى چېرچېر	יס בְּתְּבְתְּהוּ	ָהְרְהָלְּי	ָהְבְּקְּרָוּ הְנְיְבְּיִּ	ַהְבְּהָרָּ הַרְבְּהָרָ	רְּכְּבְתֵּוּ	ַהְנְתְרֵהְיָּיִי הְנְתְרֵהְיִיּ	ָּהְבְּתָם הַיְּהְבָּתַם	עַרְיָּהָלָן הַיְּרְיָּהַן	עקנתנם	עָרָבְרָהַנָּוּ	ָבְתְבְתִניּ בְּתְבְתִניּ	Likewise	אַניַניְרָנּ	ָהְתְּרְנְּי	
S	g								u						
he has בַּתַּב	or (written	min (¹ چِېك	פְּנָתְבֶּוּר	thee (گچرپچټ	thee ייי לְּתְבֵּוּ	me چَٰۤ لِمَحْرَدُ	ייי לְּתְבָּם them	ייי לְּתְבָּוּ them	ם nok קּתַּבְּמֵם	nok · · · خَتَخَدًا	sn · · · ﴿ اِرْجَادُارُ	ē of intrans. Qal likewise:	אַהָּבְבֶם (3 אֲהַבְּףְ (2 אֲהַבוֹ (ז	ē of the other forms, as Piel:	<u> </u>

IMPERF.
THE
VITH
H

	rat.	"Æ"	with f.	sg. and	the pl.	as with	Imperf.										orms.
	Qal Imperat.	שְׁמֵע כְּחִב .m .gs	שמערוי	<b>ACIDE</b>			<b>אַכּוֹאֵר</b> ָי				<b>actic</b>	acko	ACA!			שמענו	verbal fo
	O	sg. m.	֓֝֝֝֝֝֝֝֝֓֓֓֝֝֓֓֓֝֝֓֓֓֓֝ ֓֞֞֞֞֞֓֞֞֞֡֓	של הריילי היי			בי היי	ער ערייי	:		ט המני	ם ה ה	Ü.			ב ה ה	he other
TI. WILL THE DELETE.	3. pl. masc.	יַרְפָּבוּ	(, וֹבְחָבִּירוּ	(Likewise with	פקפני	2. pl. m. 3.	f. and 2. pl. f.	and with פְבְּהָני	2.	for which	(יפקפקיו יכפקיני	also is		ָּרְהַתּעיָם יַרְהַתּעיָם	ָרָהְרָהָיִרָּיִּ	יטהנולי	Likewise the suffixes with the other verbal forms.
	Qal	ָּהָי יִּ	Likewise (נְנְהָבְּרֵוּ	in all per-	-pus sons زخطترار	-	the last יבקבר,	•	אַרְפּּרֵ (* יְרְפְּרֵוּיִרְּ		からだった	ייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייי	ָהָי הַיּ	() 'נְבְּיִּרְנְיֵם () 'נְבְּיִּרְנְיִם		ָּהְיֵהְיִהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּהְיִּה	
	Verb. trans.	3 sg. m.	Suff. sg. 3. m.				· f		- 2. m.	ţ;	Ι.	pl. 3. m.	<del>,</del>	2. II.	<b>:</b>	ï	

- ē in the last syllable: יִשְׁמַע ; יְנְרַגְּכֶם (3 יִנְרְגְרְ (2 יִנְרְגָרָוּ (1 : יְנְרֵג : syllable: אַ זְיִבְּיָם (1 יִנְרָגָרָ (2 יִנְרָגָרוּ (1 : יִנְרַגַּרַ (1 יִנְרָגַרָּ מַלְ בַּמֶּבְף, יְבַמֵּבְף, (2 יְבַקְּבִּהוּ (1 יִבַּתָּב יַכְּחִיבְֵהוּ (1 אווי יַכִּקִּיב (1 יִבַתָּב יַכְחִיבֵּהוּ (1 אווי יַכְקִּיב

# 5. NOMINAL SUFFIXES.

\$\$ 254—261.

	with fem. plur.	מְלְנוֹת	מַלְכזּהָיי (י		שַלְבְתֵּינִי (י		מלכותיף (י			מְלְכוּתִי (י		מלְבהיהֶם (י		فرُخيسًا (١					
	with plur.	לְבוּשֵׁי	(¹ לְבוּשָׁיוּ	his garments	(י לְבוּשֵׁירָוּ	her garments	(ז לְבוּשֵׁוּךְ	thy garments	(١ لِالْمِالِة	י לבושי	my garments	( <sup>2</sup> לְבוּשׁיהֵם	their garments	( <sup>2</sup> לְבוּשׁיהָו	( <sup>2</sup> לְבוּשִׁיבֶם	your garments	( <sup>2</sup> לְבוּשִׁיבֶּן	, לבו <i>יש</i> ינו	our garments
+6-00	with fem. sing.	فيزده	مِرْدِم!	his queen	מַלְבָּטִוּיוּ		שלבחר		مَرْدُناد	مِرْدِن		مِرْدُن٥		مَرْجُعَا	מַלְבַּרְנָם	•	מלניחבן	מַלְבָּתְנוּ	•
		ले.	פיו פירוי		<u>۲</u> . ق:		با ق:		a: F:-			ញ ប៊ុះ ថ			۵. ت		<u>ن</u> ق		
	Persons with the sing.	باتانه	(י לבוישו	his garment	ֶלְנוּשָׁאַיּוּ	her garment	(² څِدائهاد	thy garment	(י לְבוּשׁוּ	(י לְבוּשִׁי	my garment	ן (¹ לְבוּשָׁם	their garment	(' לְבוּשָׁן	(" לְבוּשְׁבֶם	your garment	ל לְבוּשְׁבֵּן) (3)	(י לבושני	our garment.
	Persons		sg. 3 m.		ţ.		2 m.		ţ; ,	Ι.		pl. 3 m.		ij	2 m.		· t	i	

# 6. INFLEXION OF THE NOUNS WITH SUFFIXES. Comp. pp. 3-8, and in reference to the numbers p. 22.

I. Nouns of the first form.

	Ē	E	E.	•				
בְּפְרָר בְּפְּרָר בְפְּרָר בְפְּרֵי	호 X:	10 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	(x,a;a)					
	£¢.	<u> </u>			(d)	<u></u>		
	במאו	המאור	におがけ	ָבְטָאֵירָהַם בְּטָאֵירָהָ	4. <u>Val</u>	שויור	, E	לדינים ג'דינים
	ð G	ويزاد	eg Çir	ويرارت م	44	がだ	הלשיו	הישירה
برکوا برکوا	Ë	9	0. E.	פְּבֵּוּיְנִים מַבְּיִּנִים	3. ciri	מוהר	שוני	מוהירם
ו. ילַדּוּ ילַדְּיּוּ ילַדְיּוּ יי) ילִדיוָם . יו.	なに	נערר	נאָרָי	נצריהם				
sg. pl.								

								֓֝֝֝֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֡֝֝֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓	וְבְרְנָיָם וְבְרְנָיָּר	֓֝֝֝֝֓֝֝֓֝֝֓֓֓֝֝֓֓֓֝֝֓֓֓֝֝֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓
					מובחכם		<u> </u>	•		
FORM.	 'ਬਟਾਪ੍ਰੀ 'ਬਟਾਪ੍ਰੀ	SYLLABLE		C XI	ל <u>ר</u> אָהָם		(בְנֶתְ)			֝֝֝֝֡֝֝֝֝֝֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓
Nouns of the second form.	II. יבאַר שְׁעָרוּ יִבאַר שְׁעַרָּכִם יִבאָיו שָׁעַרִיוּ יַבאִיו שָׁעַרִיוּ	Nouns with stable first syllable	تفضرا	نغضلا	تفريرده		جزچם ,ب		מוּשְאָכֶם	ָּרָ בְּיֶה
II. Nouns	it.						4.	מואאיין		41,
		ÏÏ.	خَرِدًا	פוריבור (פותבור)	לרינים לריני	בייני טריי	(F) (F)	֡֝֜֝֜֝֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓֓	ָ מַסְפָּרָיי מִסְפָּרָיי	מְסְפְּׁנֵינְיְנְיִם (רָּ (נָרָ) (בְּדָּ (נָרָ)
	. sg. 1. 'שְׁרֵךְ 'שֵׁרְרָ 'שִׁרְנָם pl. 1. pl. 1lq	-	sg. 1.	ei.	<b>ю</b> ́.	pl. 1. 2.				

# 7. PARTICLES WITH SUFFIXES.

\$ 266 ad fin.

- <u>-</u> 1	מִן־	אָת־ (אֹת־)	את־	<b>-</b> 5	(אלי) אל־
	ַ בּוֹ	אָתוּ	אָרווּ	בְּבִירוּ בַּבִירוּ	ענָבָּיג אַ עָּירַ
in him	from him	him	with him	عرب الم	to him
			i		
چِה	ದೆ <b>ಜಿ</b> ಕೆಟ	אֹתָה	אָהָה	ڎؚڟ۪ڗ	אַכֶּיהָ
in her	from her	her	with her	as she	
키구	ظفك	אֹתְרָּ	אָתְּךּ	בָמְוּךּ	אַלֶּיוּדָּ
in thee	from thee	thee	with thee	as thou	
그글	מִפֵּרְ	אָקוּ	אָתָּוֹנ	כָמוּרְ	אַלִירָ
בָּנ	מַפֵּנִי	אֹתִי	אָתִי	בַּמִונִי	אָלַי
in me	from me	me	with me	as I	
בָּם ,בָּתֵּם	מֵהֶם	אָתָם	אָקֿם	בָרֶם (כְּמוּ־)	אַלַהֶם
in them	from them	them	with them	as they	
בַּטֶן יּבָּטֵן	מַהַן	אַתָּוֹ	بغرثرا	בֿעו	אַלַהָן
ڐؚڎڡ	מכֶּם	אֶתְכֶם	אָקּכֶם	בַּכֶם	אַלֵיכֶם
in you	from you	you	with you	as you	
בָּכֶּן	מפּנו	אָֿלכּוֹ	אָהְכֶן	בַּכֶּן	אָלֵיכֶן
ן בֶּנוּ	מַנוּ	אֹחֶנוּ	אָקָנוּ	בַמִונוּ	אַלַינוּ
in us	from us	us	with us	as we	Similarly
					עֲלֵי עַל
′					but
					always
1		I	1 '	1	with $a$ .

# OF THE HEBREW LANGUAGE GENERALLY.

### 1. ITS HISTORY.

- S 1. The Hebrew language is a small branch of that stock of languages, which was widely spread over Southwestern Asia and a part of Africa, and which it is now customary to call the Semitic, according to Gen. 10. 21. From this parent stock the earliest to branch off was the Aramaic, in the North, or in Aram: but because the nations speaking the Semitic in the North lived greatly mixed with nations of other tongues, and were often subjugated by foreigners, the Semitic was less fully formed amongst them, and became gradually less pure than it was in the South, or in Arabia. Arabia, its principal home in ancient and modern times, was the place of its most peaceful and perfect development, and from thence it spread as far as Africa in the Aethiopic branch. The Hebrew language, really only a small branch of the great stock, and related most closely with the Phoenician, and, therefore, somewhat nearly with the Punic, although not so fully and perfectly developed in all respects as the Arabic, is nevertheless much richer and finer than the Aramaic language known to us, and has in addition this great superiority over all related branches, that, as the oldest language of the whole family which we are accurately acquainted with, it gives us in general the clearest representation of the original form, formative power, and flexibility of the Semitic: although some few things have been preserved in a fuller and fresher form in the kindred languages.
- § 2. The Hebrew, as it presents itself to us in the O. T., the remains of a once very extensive and rich literature, shows somewhat important differences with respect to style, locality, and age.
  - 1. The *poetic* language differs from the prosaic in possessing greater copiousness, variety, and flexibility. It has, therefore, on the one hand, more faithfully preserved much from the past; on the other hand, it continually renews itself from the exhaustless treasures of the popular dialects, and also from the

tendency to independent self-developement; many things that appear new in the language of the poets assimilate to Aramaic materials, since the Hebrews after Moses and David came far more into close contact with Aramaic than with Arabic nations.

- 2. Many traces show that the ancient language had different dialects, which could not very greatly differ on account of the narrow limits of the language; they appear more clearly in older compositions and in poetry especially; the two songs of Debora, Judg. 5, the book of Hosea and the Song of Songs, supply clear and instructive examples of great differences, which can be explained only by assuming different dialects. And within the still narrower limits of the kingdom of Judah, a provincial author, as Amos or Micah, shows departures from the much smoother language and more accurate style of a Joel or an Isaiah, who always lived in Jerusalem.
- 3. Further, we have in the O. T. writings of the most different periods, some incontestably from Moses himself and from his time, most originating in the long series of centuries from him to the times of the Persian and even, in part, of the Grecian rule: so that on this ground alone great variety must arise. The period when the language flourished most is from the time of David and the great prophets to the eighth century B. C.

From the seventh century, B. C., the Hebrew language, \$ 3. together with the whole of the old national life, declined more and more hopelessly; during the awakening of the old national vigour of Israel on the overthrow of the Chaldean kingdom, about 550-530, B. C., the language arose once again to a loftier height and a purer style, but from that time sunk again under the Persian and Grecian rule, without ever recovering again from its decline. And because in the times of this decline the government of the nation was mostly in the hands of nations speaking Aramaic, the language yielded so much the more easily to the Aramaic, as it was already naturally closely allied to this sister language, and might, therefore, easily pass over unobserved into it; by the time of the book of Daniel it was manifestly preferred in common life to write in Aramaic, and the Hebrew in its older form became more and more a purely learned language, comp. Neh. 8, 8,

### 2. ITS NATURE.

- As to its essential nature the Semitic, and with it the S 4. Hebrew, language consisted originally, as every language, of short monosyllabic elements or primitive roots, words at present discernible only by consideration and dissection, but found for the most part also in those linguistic stocks with which the Semitic was connected before its separation, the Sanscrit, or socalled Indo-Germanic, in the North, and the Coptic in the South. Remains of these primitive roots have been more faithfully preserved in many so-called particles, \$ 110: but the most living and important part of the language, the verb and the noun, has advanced far beyond this stage; around one main idea a number of accessory ideas and nicer distinctions have collected in the unity and solidity of a word capable of manifold formation; and hence word-building (form) is the prevailing principle of the Semitic stock. - In this word-building the Semitic excels the Sanscrit languages in possessing greater exactness and thoroughness in many respects, as the consequent distinction of gender both in the pronoun of the second person and in the third and second person of the verb: but in general it has not attained the degree of high perfection to which these languages have come. Its word-building has not attained the ease and readiness to follow the thought in all directions into its finest distinctions; and much that the language possessed in its fresh youthful days, e. g., the distinction of a neuter, it has lost again. Composition, which in the Sanscrit languages denotes a special and still higher stage of development, the Semitic has not attained to, with the exception of a few beginnings, \$ 270. On the contrary, it is a principle of the Semitic to place the words of a sentence simply side by side in the natural order of their sense; and also many conceptions which more accurate languages express by means of word-building, are indicated in this simply by important position, or repetition of the words, and by the force of the context.
- § 5. On the other hand, the Semitic has developed itself in other directions far beyond the early attainments of the Sanscrit, but

in this early effort after definite and thoroughly consequent formations has exhausted, as it were, its resources for new development. To this effort belongs preeminently its peculiar stable development of the *roots*. That is, for the formation of the main element of language, the verb and the corresponding noun, three stable sounds are regularly demanded, which, however, need not possess the compactness of one syllable: these three stable fundamental sounds constitute the *root* of a word, which may not contain fewer, and rarely contains more. By means of this thorough-going law of the *triliteral* but *not necessarily monosyllabic root*, the language obtains

- ו) this advantage, that thereby an unusually great number of roots for actual use are produced from the few and often very short primitive roots, by which means the significations are continually more definitely marked off, and the want of composition, \$ 4., is less felt, as קַּלָה = ire, but שׁלּי redire, and as from the short primitive root אַב come קַבָּה and קַבָּה to cut, קַבָּה to shorten, סַבְּבַה or קַבַּה to cut off.
- 2) Since the roots, further, may extend themselves within their fixed limit in almost any desirable combination of sounds (§ 118), regardless whether all the sounds can be brought into one syllable or not, the language receives thereby a decided inclination to become *polysyllabic* and rich in vowel sounds, since such arrangements of sounds as *kath naft npal* must of themselves fall into two syllables. But there follows from this
- 3) greater softness and liquidity of the vowels within the three stable sounds, since the language is rarely able to combine such different consonants under one vowel. And consequently the word-building has, finally, availed itself of this flexible internal vocalisation, in that it changes the vowels as to position and character within the roots and stems with every different qualifying addition; and this internal word-building by vowel changes is a main peculiarity as well as excellence of the Semitic, whereby it accomplishes much by slender means. Of root-vowels in these languages, therefore, nothing can be said (excepting certain vestiges of an older language, \$ 113), save that a is everywhere the primary vowel.

- The peculiarities described in \$ 4. sq., are distinctive marks **\$** 6. of the Hebrew as of all the Semitic languages: and these established peculiarities are explained only by the primitive history of the development of all linguistic stocks. But within the circle of the languages related to it the Hebrew has very much peculiar, partly in reference to its entire construction, derived from the most distant primitive time, - partly, in reference to its final, cultivated development, obtained from more historical For whilst in the Semitic generally a liking for great brevity of expression has been acquired, this tendency has been very peculiarly developed in the Hebrew, as the language of the highest Oracle and the purest Religion, mainly formed by great Prophets, so that it has become, as it were, the eternal mother-tongue of all true Religion, in which the most rigid and exact simplicity prevails along with the most beautiful copiousness and clearness of thought. And this peculiarity has coloured more or less the Greek language of many Hellenistic books as well as those of the N. T.
- § 7. One of the things that Hebrew Grammar has to do is, therefore, to show the medium place of the Hebrew, first, in its own immediate circle, between the Arabic and the Aramaic, and, then, as a Semitic language in relation to other stocks, between the most fully developed (Sanscrit) and the less fully developed (Coptic, Turkish, Malay, Chinese) languages. But this must be specially remembered, that the Hebrew, although it is a very primitive and peculiar language, expresses in its own way all the thought of human discourse with perfect clearness.

# FIRST PART.

# OF SOUNDS AND THEIR SIGNS.

# INTRODUCTORY.

In the sounds of the Hebrew as a polysyllabic language § 8. essentially three stages come into consideration: the syllable having the vowel as its centre, the word held together and united by the tone, and the complete sense of all the words of the sentence having the pause as its destination.

In every language sounds are much earlier than their written signs, so that these cannot be well understood without an accurate knowledge of those. But since the sounds in Hebrew have come down to us in a written character which has passed through the most various changes and forms, they must be explained with constant reference to their signs and their history. We begin, therefore, since a table of the signs has been given p. 1, with a short history of them.

# 1. EXTERNAL HISTORY OF THE PURE ALPHABET.

The Semitic letters are the Alphabet, so named from them, § 9. of which the Hebrew is only a single ancient branch. From all existing traces, it must have been invented in prehistoric times by a Semitic people, since its peculiarities suit only the Semitic languages with their numerous gutturals, and for these languages it is in general quite sufficient. Formed from the Egyptian ideographic character, one of the oldest and simplest methods

of writing, by new creations it has been developed with infinitely greater perfection in this way, that for each of its 22 consonantal sounds a distinct sign is appropriated, which is the image of an object whose name begins with this sound, so that this name serves likewise for the name of the letter; as 2 gimel (i. e. camel), the picture of this animal, stands for the letter g.

**\$** 10. Since the time when historical traces of the Semitic character appear, it has divided, in the lands immediately bordering on Palestine, into two species with somewhat distinctive characteristics. The western branch, which has become especially famous in the Phoenician character, was also the character of the ancient Hebrews till sometime in the last cent. B. C., and was préserved still longer amongst the Phoenicians, and longest of all amongst the Samaritans, whose Pentateuch must still be written in this antique character. Its features are antique, stiff and angular, without much proportion and beauty. On the other hand, the eastern branch, in the lands of the Euphrates and Tigris, named by the later Jews the Assyrian character, and essentially the same as the Syrian, became much more flexible, circular and regular, and at a somewhat early period changed into the Cursive. The influence of eastern biblical learning among the Jews, which was so greatly in the ascendant from the 6th cent. B. C., must have been in the last centuries B. C. increasingly favourable to this more regular and agreeable character, and have so largely supplanted the older character, that in the Middle Ages scarcely a faint remembrance of the older and proper Hebrew alphabet was retained. - Still, the old character was retained on the coins till the first and second centuries A. C.\*

<sup>\*</sup> See the paper upon these coins in the Göttingische Gel. Anz. 1855, p. 641 sq. Nachrichten p. 109 sq.

the line, and D, which as a completely closed figure denotes the end of a word. It is also a constant rule, that the word must end with the end of the line, and yet all lines be of the same length: if the last word would not fill up the line, usually some letters are widened: of this kind the 5 following are met with in common type:

The tabular order of the 22 letters was fixed at an early § 12. period essentially as at present, as the alphabetic poems of the O. T. show; it certainly originated together with the names of the letters, which have a Semitic though not Hebrew origin, from an older Semitic people. At present it is not clear upon what principle this order was adopted, since it is only occasionally in the Alphabet that such letters are arranged together as by their nature (as ¬, 1, ¬, the 3 clear mutes, b, D, 1, 3 liquids), or their names (as ¬ hand, ¬ the hollow of the hand) are related.

In writing words and sentences, connected letters are written in Hebrew, as in most Semitic books, from *right* to *left*, and must so be read.

The later Jews have used the alphabet for numeral signs, following § 13. the example of the Greeks: N-D for 1-9; '-B for 10-90; P-D for 100-400; the numbers 500-900 are indicated either by combining D 400 with other hundreds, as BD 700, or by the final letters J, D, J, J, P, as J 500, D 600; 1000 is N again, but with two points above it N. But for D 15, which two letters might also represent the divine name Jahve, and are avoided, therefore, from reverence, D 9 + 6 is used.

— But the first certain traces of the use of these numeral signs are not met with earlier than upon the Jewish coins of the first century A. C.

# 2. INTERNAL HISTORY OF THE ALPHABET.

I. The ancient written character was by nature very brief § 14. and parsimonious, confining itself to what was necessary. Hence it expressed a double consonant, which is not divided by a vowel or Sh'va, merely as a single one, because it seems to be only somewhat lengthened, leaving it to the voice to distinguish: as Jan dabber, UDD mimménnu, comp. § 21.

It was preeminently, at least in its prevailing principle, a merely consonantal alphabet; and could longer retain its element-

ary state, since the vowels in the Semitic, acc. § 5, define rather the nicer differences of the meaning of a derived word than the roots, and can, therefore, be more easily supplied from the connexion by one who is acquainted with the language and the book. Yet this principle could not in any wise be maintained with perfect strictness, because in certain unusual cases two vowels followed each other (as in gôi galûi) both of which could not be left unrepresented in writing. And thus a commencement in vowel-writing was made within this ancient alphabet. which advanced for the sake of clearness from these necessary cases to others less necessary, and increased with the progress of time. Nevertheless with these changes, the alphabet remained the same in this respect, that only the appropriate consonantal signs were used to express the vowels, namely, 1 and 1, whose sound, acc. \$\$ 52-57, often melts into  $\hat{u}$  and  $\hat{i}$ , for  $\hat{u}$  and  $\hat{i}$ , as סור sûr, איז din; far less frequently א in the middle of a word for  $\hat{a}$ , as DND  $\hat{a}$ , Hos. 10. 14 (later it is used for  $\hat{e}$  also, acc. \$ 65. as ארץ rêsh, even ינאץ janêss § 141), since א is not a semivowel but an aspirate.\* Accordingly a peculiar method of writing the vowels was adopted, the rules and history of which are as follows:

\$ 15. I. The vowel, if it immediately follows the consonant, as is usually the case, being, therefore, so closely connected with it that the consonant cannot be pronounced without it, is not written: but the second vowel of the syllable must be written, as the i or u of the diphthongs ai au, formed acc. \$ 29: " dái; similarly " bájith, acc. \$ 146, or the i after û in \$\frac{1}{2} \subseteq \text{\$ 149}; hence the contracted diphthong ae ô thence arising is also most naturally so written: מוח baeth'ka, מוח môtham, שוח pôl. But also an ô, unchangeable by nature or become so, was often indicated, with î and û as well, because of their strength: נרול gadôl, with î and û as well, because of their strength:

The use of the letters 1 as vowels having been thus introduced, it became gradually more and more frequent, with this limitation, however, that they are, even later, but rarely

<sup>\*</sup> In the Greek alphabet N became subsequently distinctly  $\alpha$ ,  $\Pi$   $\varepsilon$ ,  $\Pi$   $\eta$ , y o.

used for the merely tone-long sounds  $\bar{e}$   $\bar{o}$ , especially  $\bar{e}$ , and whenever used are more frequently put in the tone-syllable and that next to it than farther from the tone, where they may be omitted even for the contracted diphthongs: יליכהו haeniq, יליכהו jôlik, יליכהו jôlikûhu. But for a short vowel in the middle of a word they are never written, with the exception of the radical  $\dot{e}$  of a class of roots, shortened merely by the tone: אולינה jolika nigléna, § 198.

Subsequently 1 began to be put before a middle-syllable (§ 27) for u, as fill hukka (he was smitten, acc. § 131 from the root fill).

- 2. The vowel closing a final syllable has special character- § 16. istics, having a free and unobstructed pronunciation, and having often great importance in the meaning of the word: it is, therefore, more constantly, and in monosyllabic words necessarily, represented by a character, whether it have the tone or not; namely, so that
- ו) i and u closing a syllable were represented by ידי :ויי jadi, כחבחי kathábti, כחבה kathbû;

- 3. A vowel beginning a syllable has before it, § 24, at least § 17. the softest aspirate (spiritus lenis), instead of a stronger consonant: the Alphabet, therefore, remains in this case true to its primary principle, inasmuch as it uses N instead of any other

consonant, and its representation of the vowel accords with what has been said above; thus

- ו) in the beginning of a word, where this case must be most frequent: אמר may be, e. g., 'amar or 'emór or also 'ômer, although for the latter vowel אומר may be more plainly written, acc. § 15; therefore the orthography of the proper name איש וובא . Chron. 2. 13, denotes that it may not be pronounced 'ishái' but Ishái, acc. § 53. The very frequent û- (and) only is always written is simply: ווביח ubaeth.
- 2) at the beginning of a syllable in a word: צכאות Ssba'ôth \$ 74. ערבאים 'arbi'im \$ 55.

Whenever, therefore, the same letter had to be written twice as consonant and vowel, it was preferred to write it only once: ניינים ניינילוים, sojim, sometimes even at the end of the word אוֹם gôjim, Zeph. 2. 10. But in the similar case אמם 'ômar (I say, r. אָמָר, was written invariably for אמר, as might be expected from § 18.

\$ 18. II. The old, pure character confined itself in general very faithfully to the actual sounds of the spoken language, and retained only in few cases the sign of a sound which was no longer audible, or was altered, as in the suffix r-- âv, acc. \$ 43; יומכל jôkal for jôkal, \$ 37.

§ 19. III. The finer reading-signs for the tone of words or the divisions of the sense (pointing) were almostly wholly unknown in connection with the old alphabet: probably it used only a greater space after the end of a section, and a double point: at the end of a verse, perhaps also (as the Samaritan text) a stroke

over words of doubtful meaning to remind the reader, e. g., דבר, i. e., déber (plague) must be read not dabár (word).

Over one or more letters, which it was thought desirable to mark as doubtful or incorrect, a large dot was written, as \$\frac{1}{27}, \psi. 27. 13: subsequently these were called puncta extraordinaria, in distinction from those described \$ 20.

# 3. LATER POINTS, OR PUNCTUATION.

Since, then, the ancient Alphabet continued so meager \$ 20. and imperfect in those respects described in \$\\$ 14-19, but at the same time came to be more and more looked upon in the centuries after Christ as sacred and unalterable, even in all externals, there was formed gradually in the Massoretic schools of learning a set of reading signs to illustrate and complete it, the so-called punctuation. This system became all the more comprehensive and exact for having been formed purely in a learned manner to facilitate the understanding of a most sacredly reverenced character. In common usage, however, it was always looked upon as merely a later addition for establishing the correct reading (Q'ri), and, therefore, carefully distinguished from the ancient text (K'thîb) by means of very fine points and strokes, and was never transferred into the rolls of the synagogues used in public. Since, therefore, the Massora, or the grammatical doctrine of the schools, could not venture to alter the letters of the text that had been received as sacred. the consonants of the O'rî were written only in the margin, but their points were written in the text where the consonants of the margin should be read; as ψ. 126. 4:

# שוּבָה יַהָוֶה אֶת־שְׁבִוֹתְנוּ | שביתנו

that is, שביחנו is to be read. In the case of a few words only, which occur very frequently, the letters in the margin were omitted, as being easily supplied by the reader, which is now called a *Q'rî perpetuum*; especially in the case of the divine name חור, i. e., *Jahve*, which should be read אָרֹנִי, but is

now written merely as יְהְיָהְ: in the case of the name of the city יְרִיּשְׁלֵחְ, which according to the vocalisation ought properly to be written ירושלים; and in that of the pronoun when it is used as a feminine, and the reader is directed to read הוא instead of הוא.

This system of punctuation may be compared with the Greek accents and points, but still better with a very similar system of reading-signs in the Syriac bibles, and gives us the old language as the most learned schools conceived and understood it: it has also in its present highly developed form manifestly been formed gradually from smaller attempts by various changes, and does not come down to us in all manuscripts and impressions without variations. And this supplementing of the ancient character concerned most of all the tone of the whole sentence, \$\$ 95—100, the vowels, \$\$ 29—31, a good deal, the consonants, \$\$\$ 21, 48, 50, but little.

- \$ 21. In the last particular, the most important, and in general the oldest sign, is a point in the middle of a consonant, which points out generally the hard pronunciation of its consonant. This pronunciation takes three very different forms. In the two first of these, which are the most frequent and most important, the point is called Dágesh (i. e., a prick, punctum):
  - 1. The point, immediately after a full vowel, denotes that the consonant is to be spoken double (§ 14), and, therefore, harder, or rather, with a greater stress than usual, as 12D sábbu, 12D; jasobbu. In this case it is called usually, but very unsuitably, Dagesh forte; the name Dagesh fortius would be better.

At the beginning of a word this Dagesh is found, but only in certain cases, in close conjunction with what precedes, § 92.

- 2. In reference to the point as so-called Dagesh lene, which might be better called Dagesh simplex, see §. 48.
- 3. If  $\pi$  at the end of a word, where it has generally no consonantal power, acc. § 16, is nevertheless hard, i. e., a

<sup>\*</sup> Because of the frequency with which this word occurs, and for convenience sake, simple Sh'va instead of the compound one, § 30 sq., has remained under the '. The form Jehovah is purely a modern mistake.

consonant, this point is inverted in it, but in this case under the name of Mappîq: אַבָּה bâh, נַבה gabâh, נַבה gabâ<sup>a</sup>h.

The opposite of the point of hardening in all these cases is a horizontal stroke written above the letter, indicating the softer pronunciation, which is called Rase בְּלֶּהְ, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, וֹ בִּי, with Dagesh forte, בְּלֶּבְּה with Dagesh lene, בּוֹלְבְּ with Mappiq. But this sign is used but rarely in common copies.

The Hellenistic pronunciation of some consonants and § 22. some vowels especially, according as it is known to us from the LXX, the N. T., and other Greek memorials, departs somewhat from that formed in the Massoretic punctuation. These were dialectic differences, just as subsequently the Massoretic punctuation was retained in a purer state amongst the so-called Portugese Jews, but was corrupted amongst the so-called Polish. In our description of the sounds, we take as the foundation the Massoretic pronunciation as in general the finest and most correct.

# I. SOUNDS IN SYLLABLES.

### 1. IN GENERAL.

According to \$ 5, the Semitic is partly distinguished by \$ 23. its vowel wealth, not suffering large collections or groups of consonants, and especially never beginning a syllable with several closely connected consonants, as clam, κτείνω. The Hebrew, however, not the richest in vowels of the Semitic languages, has in general lost the power to retain a short vowel in a simple syllable, as in the Arabic kātālā, the Greek ἐγένετο; only when the tone supports the short vowel can it remain in a simple syllable, \$ 25, in all other cases, excepting a few depending upon special causes, \$ 40 sq., it has disappeared.

Nevertheless, the Hebrew has never become very poor in vowels: the word-tone retains near it the fuller vowel sound, both after (as in בַּחַבֶּד, \$ 190, שֶּׁהֶשׁ, \$ 146) and before it (the pretone, as the ā in בַּחַבְּה, \$ 87); only from the second syllable before the tone is the vowel pronunciation lessened as much as possible, \$ 88.

Through this decrease of light and short vowel pronunciation, the actually remaining vowels have become somewhat heavier and less agile: whence arises this law especially, that an originally short vowel remaining in a simple syllable from some cause is forthwith lengthened into a long one in order to maintain its position, \$\$ 60, 69, 87. A more partial result is this, that the vowel of noun-forms, which incline to a heavier vocalisation, obtains a firmer position by doubling the following consonant, \$\$\$ 155, ad fin., 187, sq., 214.

- \$ 24. A full Hebrew syllable, therefore, has a firm vowel, firm either by nature (length), or by its position before a following vowelless consonant, or lastly by the word-tone, and this vowel regulates the syllable, and the extent and nature of syllables may be best determined by it:
  - ז. This vowel must be preceded by a simple consonant, from the softest aspirate (the Greek spiritus lenis), the presence of which is most easily observed in the middle of a word, after a closed syllable, אַרָּחֹב / jish-'al (not ji-shal), 'ômar, 'amin (where the n is wanting according to \$ 245), אַרָּחֹב / umin (where the n is wanting according to \$ 245), הַרָּחָב / har, בּאַנֹּחֹב / lô-vé, אַרָּחַב / mik-tab.

A double or otherwise closed sound can never precede (acc. \$ 5): but another single consonant may precede any consonant introducing the vowel of the syllable, the first consonant being carried over to the next syllable by a hurried, unformed vowel. If the Hebrew were as rich in vowels as the Arabic, this most rapid precursory sound would be a distinct short vowel: but it is really only an indistinct commencement of a vowel, which most resembles the most rapid e, as א בְּחֵיל k'sîl or kesîl, not xîl, א בְּחֵל l'ish or leîsh, וְּהַוֹּ חֵל lim' du, יִלְּחֵל jilm' du, יִלְּחַר jilm' du, in the middle

More than one such imperfect vowel cannot precede, so that for two consonants coming together in this way a distinct vowel must be adopted. For this purpose, acc. § 40, i(e) occurs most frequently: but where a or o(u) has been indigenous in the stem-form, §§ 212, 226, or is otherwise near at hand, § 245, the first consonant adopts this more definite vowel.

A compound syllable before the final syllable can close § 26. with but one consonant: the final syllable, which has a less restricted sound, may close with two consonants, but only if the last of the two different consonants is one of the 8 mutes, which close with firmness, § 47, as אָרָה 'ard, אָרָה 'property jashq, אַרְה 'property jashq, א

Those syllables the last consonant of which is also the \$ 27. first consonant of the following syllable, form in many respects a secondary class of compound syllables, as the first syllable in 150 qállu, 150 bittô, 150 kullám. Before a double consonant the vowel is not so compressed as before two different consonants, and may oftener lengthen itself when the reduplication ceases: hence these middle-syllables have many peculiarities, \$\$ 34, 84.

<sup>\*</sup> This name, as commonly used, is unwillingly substituted by the translator for the author's name hinterlautig, aftersounding.

S 28. Another subordinate class of compound syllables is composed of those whose final consonant instead of closing wholly and abruptly its syllable, rather forms a transition to the following one, as Ini bik'thob, IPP chiq'qae, not chiqqae; these may be called loose-compound, or half-open syllables. For the individual instances, see § 48.

In order to mark more decisively, by a sharper separation of the preceding short vowel, a syllable as not a close-compound one, the first of the two consonants in the middle of a word is sometimes doubled, and the Dagesh used for this purpose, \$ 21. 1, may be called the dividing Dagesh (D. dirimens), as אַבָּרָה from לוֹי to thee and the הַ of interrogation, \$ 104, ישׁבָּרָה (I buy), Hos. 3. 2, belongs here; and in ישׁבָּרָה trom אַבָּרָה, branch, the rapid vowel, \$ 31. 2, serving a similar end, is added.

# 2. THE VOWELS (SUBSTANTIVE SOUNDS).

§ 29. Of the three primitive vowels the primary and simplest is A; its two opposites I and U. Each of them becomes essentially long by reduplication,  $\hat{a} \hat{i} \hat{u}$ ; and from a + i, u arise the primary diphthongs ai, au. But e stands between a and i, and a between a and u, and in Hebrew both of these vowels have become very frequent, and e, moreover, in very different varieties. Further, the long vowels are in Hebrew either long by nature, or merely tone-long, acc. § 86; the latter are here denoted by  $\bar{a}$   $\bar{e}$ , etc., the former by  $\hat{a}$   $\hat{e}$ , etc. And since a firm short vowel can be maintained only by a full syllable, acc. § 21, sq., rapid vowels, i. e., such as cannot form a syllable, and even vowels weakened to the indistinct beginnings of vowels, § 21, are given rise to.

### VOWEL - SIGNS.

1. For the *vowels* themselves. A tabular view of them with their names is this:

	A. I	E. I.	O. U.			
	1. A.	2. E. I.	3. O. U.			
Pure long	ā Qámess.	ē.	ō Chólem.			
Pure short	ă Páthach.	· č Ségol.				
Medial sounds	_	i Chireq.	₹ u Schúreq or			
			Qibbûss.			

Here, however,  $\bar{a} \bar{c} \bar{o}$  indicate generally the length of these vowels with no reference to the distinction of  $\S$  86, founded in the nature of the language. From this table it appears

- 1) that i and u are not distinguished as to length;
- 2) that for u two signs are available, according as this sound is already expressed in the alphabetic character by 1, \$ 15, in which case a point in the middle of the 1 was thought to be enough, or not, in which case a more definite sign had to be used; and often both ways of denoting the vowel occur in the same word, according to the arbitrariness of the old character, \$ 15, as אָלֵי and בְּרָבִים and בְּרָבִים הַ אַלֵּי and בּרָבִים.
- 3) The most remarkable peculiarity is that  $\bar{a}$  and  $\delta$  are represented by the same sign and have the same name *Qamess*, only that the sign for  $\delta$  is called more definitely purp, i. e., rapid or short *Qamess*. This must arise from a somewhat early confusion of the sounds a and o in certain countries and schools: but since thereby all laws of languages are upset, it is better always to distinguish the sounds notwithstanding the sameness of the sign.

This can be done, however, only by a knowledge of the language itself, whence it appears that  $\alpha$ )  $\frac{1}{\tau}$  in an accented syllable must be  $\bar{a}$ ,

but in an unaccented compound syllable d: שָׁלֵב jáshob, וֹמֶב lámma, שׁב lámma, שׁב וֹמָב kossú, though it is sometimes o with an accentus conjunctivus (\$ 97): 29  $\delta b$ , Ez. 41. 25; —  $\beta$ ) before the tone  $\frac{1}{2}$  in a compound syllable must necessarily be ŏ: אָרָבוֹ 'orkō, but in a simple syllable it is only exceptionally ŏ in קרשׁים gódāshîm, ערשׁים shórāshîm, § 186. 2; but since, acc. § 96, Métheg may be written before every fraction of a vowel, even the smallest in a loose-compound syllable, - is generally before Métheg ā: בּחָבוּ kath'bû, but possibly ŏ: הַטְּטְ shom'ra, ψ. 86. 2; בְּרָבוּ gor'bân, § 163. — γ) Similarly it is generally ŏ before Maqqef, § 100, since when it is a Metheg is written: לאור לי shâth-li, Gen. 4. 25, although this Métheg is sometimes omitted: ¬ΠΙΩ m'nāth- ψ. 16. 5, acc. § 187.  $-\delta$ )  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  before  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ , § 31, is usually  $\delta^o$ , because the most rapid o, acc. § 60, is generally only the echo of the preceding o: DOND moosam, then further DDDD mooskem, acc. § 60: yet it may also denote  $\bar{a}$  in accordance with the meaning of the word or the context, as the word אַבְּאַני ז Kings 9. 27, because according to the context it is here necessary to read the article (§ 244), baoni (in the fleet).

- § 30. 2. The antithesis of the vowel signs is the sign of rest :, called Sh'vâ, marking the absence of a full, i. e., distinct vowel. From § 24. sq. it appears that this absence is possible in two main instances:
  - י with a consonant which depending upon the preceding vowel closes the syllable, as נְּמְשֵׁחָן, whilst letters which have no consonantal sound after the vowel, from some cause or other, are left without this sign: קַרְאָהָ, הְּעִנְּץ, the י וֹח יַּעָרָיּן. The sign is not written under the consonant closing a word as in מַמְשֵּׁה, but if the word close with two vowelless consonants, both have the sign, because the case is exceptional, \$ 26,

and properly cases like הַוְּטָא belong here. For the sake of calligraphy און has always Sh'va: בָּרָ.

- 2) with the consonant which, acc. \$\$ 24.39, may precede with a fragmentary vowel any syllable, either at the beginning of a word: אָן, or after a simple syllable with a long vowel: גְּחַבוֹב kāth'bû, or after a compound syllable: מַּחְבוֹב maml' kôth, בּחְבוֹב kit-t'bu. Because this Sh'va conveys an indistinct but yet audible commencement of vowel, it has been called Sh'va mobile, and the first Sh'va quiescens.
- 3. The intermediate stage between a full vowel and an \$31. indistinct fragment of a vowel is filled up by the rapid or Chatef vowels & & o, \$39, which on favourable occasions appear in the stead of no vowels: hence the punctuators in that case left the Sh'va in its place, but put after it one of these more distinct vowels: \_: Chatef-Páthach, \_: Chatef-Ségol, \_: Chatef-Qamess. They are used:
- ו) most with the aspirates, acc. \$\$ 59 sq., 65; but the rapid a which creeps in at the end of a word between an aspirate and a heterogeneous vowel, \$ 64, is in most M.S.S. and in our editions not expressed by \_\_\_\_\_, but by the full Páthach, with the special name of אָמי, אָסיּלָּ, אַמַעָּ.
- 2) They are sometimes found under unaspirated consonants to denote a very loose-compound syllable, \$ 28, especially after u or i: אַבָּרְכָּה, \$ 131, more rarely after a: הַבְּרָכָה (from the הַ of interrogation, \$ 104, and בְּרָכָה blessing), Gen. 27. 38, or if the consonant, acc. \$ 83, has given up its reduplication, and might, therefore, be drawn incorrectly into a close compressed syllable: הְּבְּרֶכֶנוּ rarely after a long vowel: אַבְּרֶכְנְנוּ with הַ \$ 51, and in all cases the most when the same sounds follow each other: בְּלֵלוּ , Gen. 29. 3. Here a is everywhere met with, never e; o occurs only as an echo of u: הַבְּרָבָּר, \$ 41, or, from quite another reason, as an extraordinary remnant of its full vowel, acc. \$ 40: הַרְּבָּרָב, \$ 251, from יִרְבָּרָב, \$ 260.

## CHANGE OF VOWELS.

- § 32. Originally the sense alone determined the different vowels. But apart from that, the vowels in Hebrew are subject to considerable changes through the influence of softening, flattening, and shortening; whereby has arisen great vocalic variety and multiformity.
  - I. In reference to the tendency of the language to softening, or a softer pronunciation of the vowels,
  - 1. the A-sound maintains itself with considerable purity in many cases, as in the pretone, \$ 87, but nevertheless often changes into E: namely, in and after the tone, 1) chiefly in the cases אַבֶּבֶּרָח, הַּבֶּבֶּיְ, \$\$ 146, 173, where short a becomes é before the helping-vowel e by a sort of resonance; 2) in a few cases like אַבָּרָח, אַבָּרָח, אַרָּ (basis) אַבָּרָ (basis) אַבָּרָח (basis) אַבָּרָח (basis) אַבּרָח (for ever and ever, from אַרַר) on account of the many as, comp. \$ 104; further 4) in the interrogative אַבָּר and a few endings in -ā, where ā can become é or ē, \$\$ 104, 173. Before the tone, where this E is further changed into I, acc. \$ 34, the short a is more rarely softened:

On the other hand, long a in compound syllables and before the tone, remains firm very constantly.

Besides, e occurs for a in certain cases with the aspirates,  $\S\S$  62, 65, 70.

\$ 33. 2. Short i and ŭ interchange with e and o rather according to the tone merely, whereby the distinction between the original i and the i arising from a through e is lost. They are changed 1) after the tone into the broader and flatter sounds e ŏ, comp. \$ 232, in the tone into the tone-long vowels ē ō: יָרוּץ vajjáross, from אָרָרִיץ, \$ 232, יֹב for kull, \$ 82; but á also may be used for ē in a compound syllable, as a vowel that is stronger than ē, as n (daughter) for n comp. \$ 93.

But  $\check{e}$  is sometimes met with in the tone, in the word  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} (faith-fulness)$  and in suffixes like  $\Im_{i=1}^{\infty}$ , because these forms have but just arisen from amitt and -innu, and in a few other cases:  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{\infty} \Im_{i=1}^{\infty} \Im_{i=1}^$ 

of the tone, as in the pausal suffix  $\overline{\gamma_{iv}}$ , \$ 247; and when  $\ell$  in the tone arises from longer vowels by softening or flattening, \$\$ 31, 38, 91. Short i in the tone is retained only by Dy with, D from, DN if because these particles are looked upon as prefixed words, \$ 241.

On the other hand,  $\check{t}$   $\check{u}$  2) before the tone syllable en- \$ 34 deavour to remain:  $\check{e}$  as a somewhat broader sound remains in some cases before suffixes, \$\$ 255, 257, and often supports itself with weaker consonants upon the pretone syllable, as  $\exists \vec{v}$ , \$ 138,  $\exists \vec{v}$ , \$ 160, but in general sharp i prevails before the tone. There is a difference in reference to the sharp, thin  $\check{i}$  and the  $\check{u}$ , since  $\check{u}$  as rounder and fuller mostly gives way in a compound syllable to  $\check{o}$  again, and stands firm only before suffixes, if shortened from  $\hat{u}$ , \$ 257, and from a special cause, \$\$ 145, 169, with the similar consonant m of participles, as  $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$ . On the other hand, in middle-syllables \$ 27, where the vowel may be more sharply spoken, the sharper sounds  $\check{v}$   $\check{u}$  are everywhere very steadfast, as  $\exists \vec{v}$  (his daughter),  $\exists \vec{v}$ , from  $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$ , sometimes remains, especially only before suffixes, as  $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$ , from  $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$   $\exists \vec{v}$ ,  $\exists \vec{v}$ 

Long  $\hat{i}$  and  $\hat{u}$  are very strong vowels, which may arise \$ 35. by the greatest extension of  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$ , \$\$ 141, 146, and when they once prevail endeavour to stay. As standing one degree lower in softness and pliability,  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$ , therefore, arise whenever the corresponding (\$ 33 sq.) short vowels must become long, e. g., on account of the tone: \$\frac{1}{2}\$, \$ 33, or in cases like \$\frac{1}{2}\$, for \$\frac{1}{2}\$,

A  $\hat{u}$  rarely changes into  $\hat{o}$  as if by an accidental change of sound, §§ 131, 165.

3. The diphthongs ai and au, \$ 29, appear as naturally \$ 36. important sounds in very few formations, \$\$ 180, 167, and most frequently arise only by the contraction of two vowels, \$\$ 43, 54 sq. But however they arise, the tendency to softer

sounds simplifies them always before the tone (a very few cases excepted,  $\S$  131) to *mixed sounds*, or *contracted diphthongs*, at to ae, au to  $\delta$ ; they remain only in the tone in certain cases, but so that  $\acute{a}$  is then easily much lengthened,  $\S$  43.

But these contracted diphthongs ae and  $\delta$  are sometimes subject at further stages to greater simplification: especially before new additions to a word  $\delta$  sometimes changes into  $\hat{a}$ ,  $ae = \hat{c}$  often into  $\hat{i}$ , \$ 89, comp. \$ 146; or  $\hat{a}i$ , between two consonants, in the tone is simplified in rare cases into  $\hat{a}$  with the suppression of the i: }% for i%, \$ 104.

S 37. II. The flattening or dulling of  $\hat{a}$  to  $\hat{o}$  appears but seldom, chiefly in the unchangeable  $\hat{a}$  of the noun-stem DMD, S 151; whilst in the later age of the language vice versa  $\hat{o}$  changes into  $\hat{a}$ , through Aramaic influence (only not often an  $\hat{o}$  originating in a diphthong), SS 156. 2, 161, 187. But short vowels also undergo this change in certain cases, and  $\bar{a}$  also may have arisen from  $\bar{o}$ , SS 149a, 154, 186. 1.

Since, therefore, the flattening of  $\check{a}$  into  $\check{o}$  is much rarer and more isolated than its softening into  $\check{e}$ , the short vowels  $a\ e\ i$  approximate generally to each other much more than  $a\ o\ u$ , comp. §\$ 33, 65.

The change of u into i may be called the *refinement* or *attenuation* of the sound; but this produces mostly a difference in the meaning also, comp. § 149e. The rare change also of u as the second element of a diphthong or contracted diphthong into the finer i is a species of attenuation, as  $P^{*}\Pi$ , (bosom) from  $P^{*}\Pi$ , §. 146.

\$ 38. III. Pure shortening of the long vowels before the tone is extremely rare, and the shortening without compensation between two other strong syllables, as בְּחַבֵּה bâmothae from bâmôthae (heights of-) \$ 215, is more rare than that which seeks compensation in the reduplication of the following consonant: שַּׁהְּבָּּ böttim (houses), \$ 186, from bôthîm, where contrary to the usual rule, \$ 34, ŏ is retained, and the latter is more frequent in some special kinds of roots only, \$\$ 114, 117.

In the tone, on the other hand, which has also the power of blunting sharper sounds, -ae is constantly weakened into e in a numerous class of roots, § 115. There are a few solitary

examples besides where  $\bar{e}$  is weakened to  $\acute{e}$ , or any stronger vowel into this most slackened  $\acute{e}$ , especially in the tone and in particles, as עָדֶן, אָחָד, from attûm, § 184,  $\delta th$ , § 264,  $\acute{e}ad\bar{e}n$ , § 103.

According to  $\S$  23, sq., all short vowels in a simple syl- $\S$  39. lable which are not supported by the tone, or the pretone (or sometimes the countertone,  $\S$  88), are diminished before the tone to an indistinct fragmentary vowel, which approximates most to the most hurried e, but sometimes changes, on a favourable opportunity, into a distinct rapid vowel.  $\S$  59, 40. Thus much however follows from  $\S$  33 sq., that beside  $\check{a}$  only  $\check{e}$  and  $\check{o}$  are possible in the latter case, because of i and u even as short vowels, the first is too sharp and this is too full.

Since the most rapid and indistinct vowel-sound approxi-\$ 40. mates most to the weakest e, we everywhere find, when from some cause a short vowel must be added on account of the pronunciation merely, primarily e, remaining in and after the tone, \$ 33, but before the tone attenuated into i, \$ 34. — But the sound u - o is in the whole language somewhat firmer and stronger, and resists more strongly the tendency to dissolution and shortening: it maintains its place sometimes as a rapid or a short vowel where others disappear, \$ 186. 2, or reappears where a short vowel is to be assumed in the neighbourhood of its original position, and shows further peculiarities of the kind.

A dominant vowel in Hebrew has also the power of in-§ 41. fluencing the vowel near it: thus in forms like אָבֶּי, § 32, a resonance of the vowel; after u sometimes  $\delta$  resounds instead of a mere Sh'va: אָבָיִּלְּהְ (she is taken), from אַבָּי, Gen. 2. 23, and after j' at the beginning of a root i, or in a simple syllable  $\bar{e}$ , displaces another toneless vowel: יְרָשִׁיִּהְיִּ from אָרַיִּ, § 199.

A certain variableness of the vowel between two consonants is observable especially in the words ending in two consonants, \$ 146, where the short vowel may be transferred from the first to the second, as DDY for DDY, § 147; whereby the helping vowel, \$ 32, becomes redundant; but this vocalic poverty is rather an Aramaic characteristic than a Hebrew.

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The tabular view of all the vowel sounds that the Hebrew possesses, as far as they can be represented briefly in *German* vowels, is this:

1. Fragmen							Short					
I) indistinct:*	2) d rapid	listi vow	nct: els:**	I)	obtu	se:	2) sl	narp:	3)	cle	arei	::
<del>,</del>							ĭ		1	ă		

# 3. Long Vowels:

1) tonelong: 2) pure long: contracted diphthongs and diphthongs: 
$$\bar{a}$$
  $\bar{e}$   $\bar{o}$   $\hat{a}$   $\hat{i}$   $\hat{u}$ ,  $\hat{e}$   $\hat{o}$   $ae$   $(di)$ ;  $\hat{o}$ 

### CONCURRENCE OF VOWELS.

- § 42. Two or more vowels meeting together cannot be both suffered to remain, in accordance with the essential relationship of vowel and consonant. In case of coincidence there are three things that may be done:
- 1. The contraction of both, and in two ways: 1) like sounds necessarily unite:  $a + a = \hat{a}$ ,  $i + i = \hat{i}$ ,  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ;  $\check{c}$  and  $\check{o}$  are equal to their corresponding  $\check{i}$  and  $\check{a}$ . i and u as similar sounds, may, since they are in common the antitheses of a, unite by the one sound attracting and absorbing the other, according as in each instance the i or the u is the more important in meaning and power:  $u + i = \hat{u}$ ,  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and this is the rule with short vowels, where u is the more important in meaning and power:  $u + i = \hat{u}$ ,  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and this is the rule with short vowels, where u is the more important in meaning and power:  $u + i = \hat{u}$ ,  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and this is the rule with short vowels, where u is the more important in meaning and power:  $u + i = \hat{u}$ ,  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; and  $u + u = \hat{u}$ ; u
- § 43. On the other hand, 2) a + i, u, contract into ae, ô, acc.
  § 36. Yet the language in some cases resists this contraction; in which case the first vowel as the firmer is more separated di, and u, therefore, after a is hardened into its half-vowel, the a before it often becoming long, av, dv.
  - a) in the tone of words which have a consonant after the diphthong, which then receives the helping vowel e after av, according to the rule \$ 26, this e, however, changing into i

<sup>\*</sup> Sh'va mobile, § 30. 2. \*\* Chatef-vowels, § 31.

after di, for the sake of similarity of sound: מַּחָה, הַּיִּה almost bajith, \$ 146, the dual ending מַּה \$ 180. In these cases the diphthong is also uncontracted in order to distinguish the more clearly the status absolutus of nouns from the status constructus, \$ 208 sq., although indeed contraction often takes place.

- b) in cases where originally double i or u was crowded behind a, or a second i is added to ae = ai: יחַ (living), ישְׁ or ip (cord), § 146, ישְׁיִם (my kings), § 258, arisen from aiu, the middle vowel i vanishing as the extremes of this group press together, but leaving its traces in the lengthening of the a. But this -ai at the end is sometimes softened into e, acc. § 38: איז (valley), Is. 40. 4,\* as well as איז, § 146. But elsewhere the contraction is rarely omitted: איז (field) with שִׁרָה (field) with שִּׁרָה (field) with אַרָּה (field) with שִׁרָּה (field) with שִּׁרָה (field), ישׁרָה (field).
- 2. Hardening into half-vowels, possible only with i j and \$ 44. u v, is necessary a) in the beginning of a word before a vowel: jalad for ialad, jiktob for iiktob, and a Sh'va: יולו v'lô (and to him), יהי j'hi, § 224; and is allowed always b) in the beginning of a syllable in the middle of a word when i or u stand between two stable sounds the second of which is a vowel: פַרָּוּ, פַרָּוּ, from peri with a suffixed î, ô, פוים gôjîm, from gôi-îm, בלנים g'lûjîm, from galûi-îm, MEIP (locks) qevussssôth, from qeuússssôth; but is necessary before a, since i,  $u + \hat{a}$  as incongruous cannot be contracted: יָּלְכְיָה shibjâ (captivity), חֶרְיָה chedvâ (joy), from sh'bi, chadu. But when the same vowels meet together contraction is equally allowable, acc. § 42: שַׁבְרִים 'ibrîm or עברים 'ibrîjîm (Hebrews), from עברים and the plural ending -îmi But the vowel when it becomes a half-vowel either changes wholly into the half-vowel, as שָׁבֶּיה, or fills its own place as well: עברים, עברים; the latter is the case especially with the immoveable, strong vowels. — c) At the end of a word  $\hat{u}$  is hardened after heterogeneous vowels: 19 pîv (his mouth), from pîu, קו and ימיו (his days), acc. \$ 43.

4\*

<sup>\*</sup> On the other hand, N'3, Zach. 14. 4, may be explained as st. constr., from § 287.

\$45. 3. The elision of one vowel by another, on the whole infrequent, takes place only with short or long a and \(\ell\), the lightest and most liquid vowels, and which have no proper half-vowels. If the first vowel is the more important and stronger, it displaces the vowel with which the following syllable, closing with a firm consonant, begins: DICID \(\ell\) \(\ell\) thabûm from \(\ell\) thābû-am, acc. \(\S\) 247. Or the second vowel displaces the less firm one of the preceding syllable, and this change affects \(\ell\) and a as the third radical sounds of a whole series of roots, as \(\text{ID}\) (my hoper, or hopeful friend) from \(\text{ID}\), \(\S\) 115, 151.

It is only very seldom and late in the language, that a mere aspirate separates concurring vowels, the hiatus remaining: ערְרָאִים 'arbhî-îm pl. of עַרְרָאִים', Arabians, contra § 189. 2; or in stronger way a v was used especially between a-e, § 253, often a j between i or e and another vowel, as in the proper name

## 3. THE CONSONANTS.

\$ 46. The difference as well as the relative similarity of the 22 Hebrew consonants in reference to the organs by which they are formed, and the various gradations of inflexibility and hardness or of liquidness and softness, by these latter qualities approaching the vowels, is shown in the following table, together with the corresponding fundamental vowels:

	Vowels.	aspirated		Con	firm			
			liq	uids		sibilants	mut	es
gutt. pal.	a	חעהא	half- vowels	nasal			גכ	P
	i	' h' ch	1 j		7 1		k g	9
ling. dent.				) n	51		תר	מ
							d th	ţ
						שצסו		
		,				z s ss sch		
labials	u		1	מ			פכ	
			v	m			b p	

## 1) THE MUTES.

The 8 mutes ( $\check{\alpha}\varphi\omega\omega$ ) present the most direct antithesis § 47. to the vowels. They are formed by the close pressure of the organs of speech, and as the firmest and strongest consonants are least subject to peculiarities and weaknesses. Of these the 3 chief sounds, according to the organs by which they are formed palatal, dental and labial letters, are  $\lnot k$ ,  $\lnot th$ ,  $\lnot p$ ; they are accompanied by the softer and clearer mutes  $\gimel g$ ,  $\lnot d$ ,  $\lnot b$ . The more indistinct sound changes into the clearer to split up meanings:  $\lnot \lnot c$  to stop up,  $\lnot \lnot c$  to shut up: the change of a mute of one organ into a mute of another organ, as the pronoun of the  $\i 2 \lnot d \i  

By the side of  $\supset$  and  $\cap$  stand as still stronger and harder letters  $\not$ , the Latin q, and  $\not$  t, to which the sibilant  $\not$  so corresponds: they are the low and deep letters of their organs. And that sometimes a labial had a similar pronunciation, yielding two letters corresponding to each other as p and f, appears from the alphabetical arrangement of Psalms 25 and 34, in which  $\not$  occurs twice, first in its proper place and then quite at the end, just as  $\Upsilon$  and  $\Phi$  in the Greek alphabet.

The 6 mutes, which it is usual to connect according to § 48. alphabetic order by the mnemonic name  $\eta_{\overline{1}}$ , must on the other hand have early obtained in Hebrew, as in Syriac, an inclination to the softer, that is, aspirated, vocalic, pronunciation, so that the LXX represent  $\eta$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\supset$ , almost everywhere by  $\chi$ ,  $\vartheta$ ,  $\varphi$ , and, on the other hand, D, P, by the simple hard letters  $\tau$ ,  $\kappa$ . The punctuators, however, made this distinction, that the aspirated pronunciation is correct only after a vowel sound whose aspirate extends to the following mute; and show the unaspirated and in so far harder pronunciation by inserting the point, in this case, according to § 21. called Dagesh lene. Accordingly this point

1) is inserted after a close-compound syllable: קַמְהֶּם, הְּחָבֶּּסָה, or as in מַּמְהָּם at the end of a word. But wherever a vowel or the lightest Sh'va can be heard, this immediately causes the aspirated pronunciation of the following mute: so

- 2) This rule is extended in such a way to the first letter of a word that it becomes aspirated whenever the preceding word, being closely connected (that is, after accentus conjunctivi, \$ 97, or after Maqqef, \$ 97), closes with a simple vowel יַוְיִהִיבוֹן; but elsewhere the hard pronunciation remains. If however the mute, so aspirated at the beginning of a word, stands without a firm vowel (with Sh'va mobile) before the same or a very similar mute, the hard pronunciation may remain: יַבְּכֹי.
- 3) A double letter cannot receive the softer or aspirated pronunciation, so that the point in that case is both Dagesh lene and Dagesh forte: מַבְּיִם rabbim, מַבְּיִּם sappîr (yet with a dialectical pronunciation σάπφειρος). This rule does not, according to § 82, apply to a final double consonant: מַבְּיִם rabh: yet in the word אַמְּ att (thou, fem. sg.) and in the similar forms אַבְּיִם nathatt (thou gavest, fem. sg. from בְּיַבָּים, § 195 a) the hard pronunciation remains (and on account of this exception Sh'va also, § 30) because they are only just shortened from atti, nathatti, with the loss of the end-vowel. Another exception is בַּיִבְּיִבָּים, § 79.

If it is wished to represent in our character the Massoretic pronunciation of these 6 mutes, an h must be inserted whenever such a mute without Dagesh lene occurs: but this if thoroughly carried out would be very cumbrous and appear very unnatural, e. g., if I were written bikhthobh, or when the first letter is aspirated bhikhthobh. It is therefore best to retain the simpler way of representing these mutes by single letters, leaving the more accurate distinctions to be supplied by the reader,

as we must always do with foreign languages. On the other hand D and P may in all cases be best represented by f and q.

### 2) LIQUID CONSONANTS. — 1 AND 1.

Among the more liquid consonants, those becoming more § 49. and more soft,

<sup>\*</sup> In the translation the author's advice is followed with this exception, that  $\Pi$  without Dagesh lene is represented by th.

- \$ 51. ... 2. The 4 liquidae, more strictly so called, are far more soft and unstable than the sibilants; and among them again n ist the softest and most yielding, sometimes wholly assimilating itself with a following consonant, § 79, and sometimes at the end of a word, after a full vowel entirely vanishing, \$ 191. 5 / (comp. \$\$ 79, 103) ranks next to 3 in respect of softness. 5 and 7 are very nearly related, so that they not infrequently interchange, but 7 is nevertheless in Hebrew rougher and more aspirated (more like rh), at the same time sharing many of the peculiarities and weaknesses of the simple aspirates, \$\$ 59-71. On the other hand the labial-nasal letter D m approaches the stronger letters far more closely than does the simple nasal letter n, and but rarely disappears at the end of a word, \$ 211. 1. The historical course, therefore, is this, that m often changes into n: Dog and pog to persecute, DID and DIJ to shake, and I likewise is often weakened into n: לשבה גלשבה גלשבה אלפתו into לשבה stammering into וועו גלשבה, Is. 33. 19.
- 3. The softest and most liquid of all are the two half-§ 52. vowels 1 u and 1 j, so that the soft nasal letter n can suffer a further weakening into j: נצב to set oneself, from נצב to set, זאר to beseem from או to be beautiful. Since these halfvowels have not in Hebrew become hard and fixed letters, but have remained in a closer connexion with their vowels u and i, the letters u and i are properly only there firmly fixed as consonants, v and j, where the laws of the conjunction of vowels, \$\$ 42-45, demand it. However the principles of root and stem building, \$\$ 113-18, are also in force here; there is also between these two closely related letters a strong tendency to pass the one into the other, \$\$ 42, 36, according to which the thinner letter ' prevails almost everywhere at the beginning of a word, and sometimes appears in the middle of a word between two syllables instead of ז; קוָם for קּוָם, \$ 121, מחיה sign, Lev. 13, from הוה to show, signify. Accordingly the half-vowels have
  - 1) most naturally their right place only at the beginning of a syllable, that is, before a vowel or Sh'va, and are most necessary at the beginning of a word, \$ 44. However the con-

junction ק, and, is softened, with the rejection of the weak Sh'va, to u before another labial: אָבֶּילֶהְ, and before every consonant which itself has but a Sh'va: קְבֶּילֶהְ, and before every consonant which itself has but a Sh'va: אָבְילֶהְהָּוּ, ath'hi, יְבֶּילֶהְהָּוּ, Further, at the beginning of a word ji- or je- is softened to i after the conjunction or a similar prefix with a noun in the st. const. (according to the general law, \$ 211. 3): kith'ron for k'jithron; and, further, sometimes in the word אַיִּ אָרְהְרָּוּ, \$ 209. 3, after a closely connected particle; compare also the proper-name \$ 17.

When, on the other hand, 1 in the middle of a root would § 54. stand before a short or merely tone-long, or at least not an unchangeable, vowel, then, according to an ancient law of root-building, § 113, it can never be hardened into consonantal power, if it stands between two stable consonants which easily support the long vowel arising from resolving them. When, therefore, in such a case, an  $\tilde{u}$  or o would come after 1, u + u are contracted necessarily into  $\hat{u}$ : Did  $r\hat{u}m$  from ruom; when an a would come after 1, the a can push before the a (that it may maintain itself), so that from a + u arises  $\hat{o}$ : Did  $nam\hat{o}g$  from nimuag; when however a vowel unlike a is too important from the meaning of the form or is too stable to be changed, it then displaces the 1, so that it lengthens itself: Did,  $nam\hat{o}g$ ,  

Accordingly 1 and ' become hardened to consonants in the middle of a word necessarily only a) when from the stem-building their sound must be doubled: אָרָיִי (בְּיִּבְיּרִ בְּיִּבְיִּרְ (בִּיּרִי בְּיִבְּיִרְ בְּיִבְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ ְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִרְ בְּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִי בְּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִּרְ בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִייִי בְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִייִי בְּיִיבְּיִייִי בְּיִייִי בְּיִייִי בְּיִיבְּיִייִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיבְּיִיבְּיִי בְּיִיבְּיִייְ בְּיִיבְּיִיבְייִיבְּיִיבְייִים בְּיִיבְייִיבְייִיבְייִייְ בְּיִיבְייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיבְייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיבְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיים בְּייבְייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיבְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיים בְּייִיים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִיים בְּייִיים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִים בְּייִּיים בְּייִיבְייִיים בְּייִיים בְּייבְייִיים בְּייבְייִים בְּייִיבְּייִים בְּייבְייִים בְּייבְיים בְּיבְיי

2) ו or ' after the vowel of a preceding syllable always \$ 55. amalgamates, when the preceding vowel is a similar one, into the same long vowel: אָלָי shûq, from shuv'q, \$ 146, מִימָין (at

the right of ....) from j'min and the preposition mi, § 242; assimilates before the tone with a foregoing i, with u according to § 42; and before i, according to § 43, a changes into  $\delta$ , and before i as usually into ae. Accordingly they remain only in the cases apparent from § 43 either consonants or at all events more distinct; elsewhere very rarely in certain roots, § 115, 118, in all cases however in accordance with the principal law, that, e. g., u + u necessarily becomes  $\hat{u}$ , § 198.

- \$ 56. In the middle of a root, both before and after the vowel of the syllable, ז and remain harder when the last radical is a mere vowel: הְּוָה, רְיָה, possibly even when the last radical is a mere breathing (a guttural, \$ 58): נְּנֵע , עָּנִוֹת ; here even such pronunciations as בַּוֹתְה, according to \$\$ 150, 212, are possible. Similarly, 1 as third radical remains hard in the cases הַּנְשׁהָה, גָּשׁוְהָה, \$ 121.
- \$ 57. 3) When i and ' are placed in the process of formation at the end of a syllable closing with two consonants, \$ 26, they cannot then be heard at all as consonants, but immediately receive their vowel pronunciation; and then, indeed, the i, which is here much the more frequent, attracts the tone of the syllable so strongly that the preceding vowel wholly disappears: יְשִׁי (according to the force of the formation, \$ 146, יִבְּיִי (contracted from יְבִּי (שַׁבִּי), according to \$\$ 224, 232), and only the stronger letter o resists expulsion: בּוֹל dôni, Ps. 83. 2: on the other hand יְנִיּנִי jishtáchu, יְבִּי bóhu, יְבִי gássu.

Yet this vowel i disappears at the end of several nouns, § 146.

## 3) THE ASPIRATES.

S 58. The 4 simple aspirates, generally called Gutturals, form a group difficult to understand, which is peculiar for its extent and gradation to the Semites, and which is most widely separated from all the other letters in relation to pronunciation and especially to surrounding vowels. They emit from the throat merely a breath, softer or harder: if the air flows forth quite clear, we have then the softest aspirate N, to be compared with the Greek spiritus lenis, which is wholly imperceptible without an immediately following (or according to the root-building

§ 113 also preceding) vowel; the same pure, clear breathing somewhat harder is  $\pi$  h, the Greek *spiritus asper*. If at the same time the epiglottis is rubbed by the breath, we have y gh, approaching  $\lambda$  (somewhat like g in the German nage), and  $\pi$ , guttural ch (as in the word Loch in Scotch), approaching  $\gamma$ . We express the y in writing by gh, but more briefly by the *spiritus asper* f, to be read as gh.

Since the sibilants in certain languages have a strong tendency to change into simple aspirates, in Aramean the hardest sibilant ש often changes into the somewhat hard aspirate ש, in Hebrew more rarely, as piy to be narrow, אָרַן to knock out, אָרַן to shatter, from אָרָן אָרָן, אָרָן, אָרָן ער אָרָן.

- 1. As aspirates these letters cannot do without a vowel \$ 59 in their immediate neighbourhood: they can be spoken most easily preceding a vowel, but tolerably immediately following one. When therefore in word-building a consonant would be spoken without any, or without a clear vowel, here vowels must come in; and this weakness of the aspirates increases when two of them come into contact. Hence an aspirate can
- 1) never be spoken as the beginning of a syllable with an indistinct Sh'va, \$ 39: it then receives a rapid vowel: comp. אַכָּקְים ghamāqîm with מְלֶכִים m'lākim, \$ 186, 2; this vowel sometimes increases to a full short one before another aspirate, \$\$ 104, 199, to be spoken according to \$ 69 sq.: and after א o or e is sometimes lengthened to long o and e (but only in nouns); אַכָּר \$ 186, אַבָּרְלִים \$ 186, אַבָּרְלִים from a special cause \$ 153; and then also, instead of אָבֶּרְלִים (vow) with the reduplication of the following consonant, \$ 155.
- 2) An aspirate closing the syllable before the tone, which § 60. syllable can, therefore, in passing over to the following easily resolve itself and become open, can repeat the vowel of its syllable as an echo: יַרְעָנְהָּ (עַּבְּרָבְּרָהְ (שַּבְּרְבְּרָבְּרָבְּרָ (we know thee, according to § 251) j'dagha/núka מַחְבָּרָה bec/rôth. However, the firmer vowelless pronunciation can remain: מַחְבֶּר מָחְבָּרָה the distinction is mostly this, that in half-open syllables, § 28, as well as in connexion with weaker aspirates and before softer consonants, the softer pronunciation has the preference, if, on the other hand, the meaning commends more rapid sound (as in stat.

constr.) then the firmer and harder. Sometimes in the looser pronunciation o and e separate from each other, and become accordingly long in a simple syllable, especially in successive aspirates: הָּעֲבֶרְהָּ for הַעֲבֶרְהָּ for הָעֵבְרָהְ, אַרְחֹחְי, with w before ר.

- \$ 61. But in and after the tone, where such an echo of the vowel of a syllable is not possible, the aspirate, clearly audible, adheres firmly to its preceding vowel: יָרָאָנוּ (to the door) אַעְרָה (שַׁעֵרָה, בַּיִּצְנוּ, comp. § 64, הַנָּצִוּח.
- \$ 62. 3) An aspirate in the middle of a final syllable ending in two consonants sometimes attracts the vowel to itself, if the helping vowel e, according to \$ 26, would be necessary: so especially in the case of א, הַאָּא ,פַּאָר , שֶּאָח for הַאָּא , בַּאָר, אָבָא, according to \$ 146, in the verb with shorter vowel אָרָרְאָן, according to \$ 226.

Similarly at times at the end of a compound syllable before the tone: בְּאַלְעָרֵהְ for 'בְּאָלָּהְ, Zech. 7. 14.

**§** 63. Also before the aspirate, especially N, and the kindred I, the long vowels prefer in the case of the nouns to remain (§ 145) rather than to sink into mere Sh'vas: סריםי, \$ 212. 3, סריםי and סריםי, stat. const. pl. from DTD (Eunuch). — The strongest aspirate \$\Pi\$ not only suffers at times a short vowel before it instead of a Chatef vowel: מַחְרִים (youths) from THE for 'TE, but frequently even sets before it in the changes of formation short a with a species of reduplication, § 69, instead of  $\bar{a}$ , in order to bring the vowel nearer to itself: To (brother) TOOD (confidence) in the plural מְבְטַּחִים, in the verb חַבּיֹם, according to \$ 232, for חַבָּי, r. החרשה; similarly החרש, according to \$ 224, from החרשה and before ער ר שער ל. 141. 8, shortened from אַער. The fuller pronunciation is more necessary before א in מצאב for מצאב from the inf. איני, since in DDDD, according to § 255, the first syllable is not perfectly closed. An aspirate at the beginning of a word, especially N, attracts to itself - even the tone of the end-syllable of the foregoing word, \$\ 216, 243.

- 2. Amongst all the vowels a is most nearly related to the § 64. aspirates, because like the aspirate it comes from a full throat: and this remark holds
- 1) most fully before an aspirate in and after the tone, where the aspirate permits the full and free pronunciation of the a: after the tone every other short vowel changes into ă: ווֹנָי for néssech, ווֹנִי for vajjanoch, also in the tone a short or merely tone-long vowel: שְׁבַּ págham for pégham, ווֹנִי for jishlōch; but where the dissimilar accented vowel before the final consonant of a word cannot be displaced (sometimes because it is unchangeable or made long, sometimes because the stembuilding, according to § 108, 1, protects e in the final syllable to counterbalance the preceding syllable), then a rapid a creeps in between it and the aspirate, אַוֹנִי shamûagh, אַנִי shômeagh, \$ 31. Yet in the case of the hardest aspirate in there are such pronunciations as בּיִל אָנִי for counterbalance in such short nouns as בּיִל (work) § 146.

Before the tone the final aspirate of a syllable allows be- \$ 65. fore it continually the O-U sound, which is established in the formation, whilst its a readily displaces the E-I sound, according to \$ 37. Yet this I-E sound can maintain itself, if the word - building favours it; and further the indistinct e often allies itself with the weaker N, less frequently with 7, or another guttural: יַערה, but יְערה, although such an e farther from the tone readily gives place to a יאסרו. — However the aspirate cannot allow before it u and i, but o and e, nearly related sounds, especially as by these, according to \$\$ 39, 60, the syllable can easily open itself to the softer pronunciation  $d^a$ ,  $\dot{e}^e$ ,  $\dot{o}^o$ ; *i* remains only before the hardest  $\Pi$  in the form אחרו, according to \$ 226, further, from special reasons, in מעשע as perf., \$ 111, and in ההלף according to \$ 138. Yet i remains before the aspirate even then if the soft ' follows: יחְיֶה, יִחְיֶה but הַחֲיַה with two aspirates.

In the tone, at least in those forms that prefer rapid § 66. vowels, and sometimes after, ה similarly allows the incongruous short vowel to change into a: אַנְּחָר from יְּהַטְּן (and he removed, Hif-il) or from יְּהַטְּן (and he departed, Qal) וְּלֵּךְ § 332;

and has before the tone sometimes e and further a for i: מֶּרְכָּב pl. מְרָכָּב for מְרָכָּב.

\$ 67.

3) After an aspirate beginning a syllable the vowel i and u can remain before the tone, and i remains especially in imperfectly closed syllables: הַרְדוּ, \$ 226, and before reduplication, \$ 34, as אַרְהוּ (his favour, from הַר) or to distinguish a tense, \$ 141: yet in other cases, especially with א, e is preferred to i: אַרָּהוֹר \$ 191, הֹרָלָה \$ 186.

In and after the tone the change of e and o into a is more variable: אָשָׁהַ and אָשָהַ \$ 138; אַהָּל , אַהָּל vajjáchòs \$ 232, but also אַבָּ for אַבָּי ; only in tri-literal syllables the resonant vowel (\$ 32) follows necessarily the chief vowel: בַּשָבּ .— In the case of the weak א e takes the place of a in the instance הַאָּשִׁ for אָשָׁר, \$ 62, and before the tone in the case of the verb אַשָּׁל (to beg), as בּּאַהִי, \$ 251.

- \$ 68. An aspirate in a prepositive or half-syllable (\$\$ 24, 59) maintains ŏ if this sound lies in the form: מַּבְּרִים, according to \$ 186. 2, from אָםָּר, but has otherwise prevailingly ŏ, more rarely e, acc. \$ 65, which further from the tone often changes into a: אַמְהוּ אַ הַּבְּרָּאַר. Further: before an aspirate appears at times the weaker ŏ instead of a mere Sh'va, especially with stronger consonants and before â: מְּבָּהָת (but חַבְּהַר \$ 245) Num. 26. 57, אָםָה (purity) ψ. 89. 45, comp. Is. 44. 27; Jer. 22. 20; Ez. 36. 35, 38.
- § 69. 3. The aspirates are not capable of the clear reduplication, which the other consonants undergo. Their reduplication disappears in accordance with these two stages: either
  - ו) the preceding vowel remains short, so that it as nearly as possible touches and as it were half doubles the aspirate: מָּחַה, אָחַר, מָהַה, a pronunciation which acc. § 63 accords well with the nature of the aspirates; or
  - 2) this remnant of audible aspiration vanishes also, so that the preceding vowel coming into a pure simple syllable becomes long (therefore  $\check{a}$ ,  $\check{i}$ ,  $\check{u}$ , acc. § 35, become  $\bar{a}$ ,  $\bar{c}$ ,  $\bar{o}$ ), which often happens before softer aspirates, and otherwise is most regular in connexion with external additions which are made to the root: מָעֵוֹב , §\$ 141, 131; עַוֹב , §\$ 140, בּעָוֹב , §\$ 242.

When a comes to stand in the pretone, it prefers before א א א נ to change into  $\bar{a}$ : הָּעִיר (the city) הָהָר comp. with הָּלָרים, הָּלָרים, \$ 70, also in the counter-tone \$ 88 comp. הַּלָּצוֹחָרָּץ with נַאָצוֹחָרָּ \$ 70.

If in the first case, § 69. 1,  $\check{a}$  has to be spoken before § 70. an aspirate with  $\bar{a}$ , it always changes into the softer  $\check{\epsilon}$ : מָּבְּבֶּה , הַּחְבֶּע, for לֵּבְּבָּה , הַּחְבָּע, the same change takes place before an aspirate with rapid  $\check{\sigma}$  (because  $\acute{a}$ -° would easily run into  $\acute{a}$ - $\overset{\circ}{a}$ ): הַּחַרַּשִּׁים.

There are, however, some cases in which the short vowel attracts the aspirate with its vowel wholly into its own syllable: אָחָרָה, Judg. 5. 28, from הַּחָרָה, from הַחַרָּה from הַחַרָּה On the other hand the too thick concurrence of aspirates is avoided, so that הַּחַרַלְּהְי is said, Judg. 9. 9, 11, 13, for הַּחַרַר (have I made to cease?)

ר like an aspirate generally does away with every trace \$ 71. of reduplication, and accordingly lengthens the fore-going vowel: בָּבָּף, בְּבַף, בְּבַף, for בְּבַף, בָּבָף, גַּבַף \$ 120; such pronunciations as occur in the substantives מְבָּף morra (bitterness), בְּבָּף (thy navel) are rare but הַבְּרָה, Gen. 14. 10, for הַבָּף, acc. \$ 70, comp. \$\$ 63 and 216.

Since lastly the aspirate, especially of the weaker sounds § 72.

7, and yet more N, easily parts with its feeble power, accordingly

- ו) two vowels surrounding א or ה sometimes combine their sound notwithstanding the aspirate in the middle, which then readily becomes quiescent: אָהָה or אָהָה, \$ 146, acc. \$ 43, from הָּה, the first part of proper-names, as הְּאָה, contracted from jáhu, \$ 270; טַלָּ (enchantment) as well as בּלָהַם.
- 2) The vowel following א in the middle of a word in \$ 73. certain cases presses forward, passing over the weak aspirate: most easily if the preceding consonant has only a Sh'va: אַלָּהְּ shêla from אַלָּהְּ shêla (petition), אַמָּ is possible for אַמְּאָרָה, \$ 62, always חַמְּאַרְה (sin of ...) and חַמֵּאַרְה from חַמַּאַרְה, חַמְּאַרְה, although rarely after an external prefix: וַאַעִּיִּיר for אַבְּי, Zach. 11. 5, \$ 235; less easily after a compound syllable, which acc. \$ 23 must be thereby separated: מְלָּאְכָה מְּלָאָרֶה (business, a very frequent word) for מְלָאְכֶה, מְלָאְכֶה, in the imperative לִּקְרָאה, ז Sam. 12. 24, from יִרְאוּ מִבּר. \$ 226; further, in אָרָראוּ

\$ 218 acc. \$ 24, for לְּקְרְאַח; with still greater difficulty after a preceding vowel, which is easy only if this vowel can turn itself into a half-vowel: אַנָּאָר (neck) contr. from ssau-'ar or ssô-ar, formed acc. \$ 152 (otherwise an â but rarely absorbs a following rapid ă: אָבֶּרְךְ, acc. \$ 232, for אָבְּרָרָ, Num. 11. 4, from אַבְּרָלָרָה and the article); altogether impossible if א itself is only a prepositive syllable after a compound one: מַלְאָבֶרָה. In the case of ה this occurs but rarely, and constantly in some cases only \$\$ 192, 244.

- \$ 74. If the vowels around the weakest aspirate must both remain, a half-vowel as somewhat stronger can acc. § 45 take its place, e. g. j in the proper name אַיָּה as well as דּוֹרָה. It is something wholly different from this when a 'after a and before a new syllable is as it were crushed out: מַלְּיִם פָּלָּהִים, מַלְּיִם (gazelles) מָלֶּיִם, בְּּלָּהִים, \$\$ 186, 189.
- 3) At the end of a syllable & loses its aspiration in this \$ 75. way, that the preceding vowel sounds out clearly, and if it was short becomes long;\* this is less frequent before the tone: והל nâva for יהל naava, יהל (he tabernacles) for אַהָּל Is. 13. 20, where acc. § 69, 1 the short vowel prefers to remain, אכל \$ 245, and in words like אכל \$ 139 8 has further arisen from 4; but universal in and after the tone, where on that account all influences bearing upon the opposite case, acc. § 64, do not exist, קרא, קרוא, קרא, מובא, and where the original ' vowel forthwith establishes itself unchangeably in a simple syllable: ירא from ירא \$ 213, אווי \$ 232. Such words as אַרָּא however, sometimes allow the toneless short vowel at the end to fall off: אָשָׁוּא, אָשָׁיָּא \$ 146. — More rarely ה is subject to a similar loss, as in the ending היה of many proper-names, acc. § 270.

Finally, indeed every consonant, especially the more liquid ones, at the end of a syllable, where it can easily be repressed, can change into a bare vowel, chiefly u or i, and amalgamate with its preceding vowel, acc. § 42 sq.: yet this is rare in Hebrew, as in the case of the noun nings (dish) as well as nings and somewhat more frequently only in order to avoid the dissonance in a repeated short root:

<sup>\*</sup> Yet the Massora reads 'נְאוֹרָנָ' and some similar words for אָרָנוֹי which is explained by the law of the counter-tone \$\$ 88, 96. Otherwise אַנְאָרָט \$ 141, where as in אָרָאָרָן \$ 163 has taken the place of another long yowel.

#### THE CONJUNCTION OF CONSONANTS.

I. The pronunciation of a vowelless consonant at the be-\$ 77. ginning of a word, \$ 24, can be facilitated by prefixing a vowel, e or a; such a prefixed vowel is found more especially before the liquids and chiefly before the sibilants: yet this occurs in Hebrew but rarely, and only in the case of isolated nouns of uncertain derivation, as אַוְרַיִּ and אַוְרַיִּ arm, and probably אַוְּבַּלּ finger, אַשְּׁבְּלַר, \$\$ 153, 147.

Since the pronunciation of the hard T-sounds before the \$78. related softer sibilants is difficult, the T of the prefix syllable hith-, \$ 124, takes its place after the sibilant with which the root begins, and is then subject to the laws indicated in \$49: הַּקְּחוֹלֵל

An exception from this is: מָלְשׁלְּינֵים, Jer. 49. 3.

2. When two different consonants come into close contact, § 79. therefore at the end of a perfectly closed syllable in the beginning of a word, or in a final syllable closing with two consonants, § 26, a lighter and weaker letter especially, flows often into the letter next to it, so that this last letter becomes doubled by means of the former being assimilated to it. But the weaker letter as the second between two syllables seldom assimilates to the first: for instance, -áttu is often said for -at-hu, where the aspirate is hard to enunciate, and -átta always for the similar -at-ha on account of the similarity of the vowels, §\$ 248, 50.

Far more frequently the first consonant resolves itself into the second, at first here and there, and then in certain oft recurring instances more constantly, and most frequently in the case of n: יצֹר, jissssor for jinssor, \$ 139, חַה for tett, acc. \$ 82, from tenth or téneth, \$ 238, far more rarely in the case of can aspirate or half-vowel מַלְּבָּל (food) for מַלְּבָּל (food), comp. \$ 117; as a harder letter only n sometimes in a prefix syllable, \$ 124. In the case of the more constant instances the greater softness of the second letter has but little effect.

The more dying away without any compensation of the soft n in the numeral אָלְיִי shtajim (where a word really begins comp. § 24. with two consonants without a Sh'va) for מְּלָבִיּלִי, § 267, and in the preposition min, § 242, is something different.

- \$ 80. When two nearly related consonants fall together in this close contact, the first sometimes resolves itself into the second: מַחַרְ for מְּחַרְתְּ, \$\$ 238, 267, and in the case of the ה of the prefix hith \$ 124: הַּבַּשָּהַר, הַבַּשָּהַר, also הַבַּבָּה otherwise than \$ 78 contracted from הַּתְּחַי.
- § 81. If the same consonants come together, separated by only a vowel or a Sh'va, the repetition of their sound is harsh and unpleasant, and is avoided if possible: in the middle of a root at least is it avoided if possible in the formation of stems, especially if no unchangeable long vowel, neither between nor before them, holds the syllables more apart, § 112.

And nevertheless in that case the letters sometimes meet together, inasmuch as the preceding vowel of that kind is shortened: " (and it made us, Job. 31. 15), १२३१०२१ (and thou makest us pass away, Is. 64 6), (comp. § 84) from ١٤٠٠٠١٠, ١٩٠٠١١٠, instances, however, that find in the rule § 232 especial justification.

- § 82. From whatever reason a consonant may be doubled, that the doubling may be heard a fitting condition of the letter.in which it takes place is needful:
  - ו) the doubling is less audible at the end of a word without a closing vowel, to which must be added that the final vowel having the tone seeks generally, \$ 86, further lengthening; therefore according to the rule reduplication disappears here: אָר gal for gall, אַל ליל for koll (kull), but immediately returns before new vowels, as אַל, אָל, אָל.

Yet the pronunciation sometimes remains unaltered before a vowel without the tone: אָשְׁרָבּה for אַרְאָרָה, \$ 195; likewise a consonant after o and possibly e remains without reduplication before a new accented final syllable beginning with a Sh'va: אַרְהָּרָה, \$\$ 251, 255; and אַבָּ (back) אַבָּ can acc. \$ 32 lengthen itself further into אַבָּ and אַבָּ .

\$ 83. 2) If the consonant which is to be doubled has Sh'va merely, it is more difficult to hear distinctly the reduplication, and it gradually disappears, but primarily in the case of the soft letters און סווי, more rarely even in the case of the sibilants, often in the case of p, but never in the case of the

6 mutes \$ 48 (excepting in נְּחַקְעוֹ, r. וְהַחְעוֹן, s. 22. 10, where, however, the ה is preceded by another), yet more frequently only in certain oft recurring cases: עַוְרִים \$ 232, עַוְרִים \$ 232, עַוְרִים (he who seeks \$ 181), וּשְׁיִי (they raise) from הַּבְּבַקְּשׁ (my staff) from הָּנְנִי ; מַקָּל (behold me), הַּלְלוּג (praise ye).

Further, in some rare cases the Sh'va itself disappears: אָסְבְּיִ (thy throne) from אַסְבְּיִ acc. to the rule § 81 for בּוֹלְיִנְ from מְיַנְיִנְ to throw

3) For the aspirates, see \$\$ 69-71.

In a language in which the finer and lighter sounds of the vowels \$84. still further disappear (as in the Aramaic), the reduplication of every consonant can by degrees cease by means of the lengthening of the preceding vowel. In Hebrew this is but rare, and most frequently after full u, and elsewhere after the sharper i: IPIN for IPIN, from the Inf. PIN, Prov. 8. 29; PININ, acc. § 155 for PININ (weed). It is possible in such cases for n, I or r to be inserted, especially after a: nevertheless PROPINT, the Aramaic pronunciation in Chronicles, is the original, and PROPINT (Damascus) is derived therefrom, acc. § 79. INPIN for INPINT (A. 7; 8p. 3. 22; comp. Is. 23. 11, is remarkable.

## II. SOUNDS IN WORDS. ACCENT OR TONE.

tone affects all the more powerfully both the nature of the particular vowels (§§ 32-38), and their length and existence in general:

**\$** 86. 1. The tone has in its own place a strong tendency to lengthen originally short vowels. As short vowels it allows only á and in certain cases  $\dot{\epsilon}$ : on the other hand it continually lengthens  $\delta$  to  $\bar{o}$ , and  $\tilde{e}$  mostly either to  $\hat{d}$  or farther to  $\bar{e}$ ; many vowels, however, which on account of the grammatical form have an inclination to extension, e. g., especially those after the second radicle in the noun-form \$ 149, are further lengthened through the influence of the tone, either to regularly tone-long:  $\bar{a} \ \bar{e} \ \bar{o}$ , or even to unchangeableness; the last characteristic concerns most of all the pure sounds  $\hat{i}$  and  $\hat{u}_i$  often  $\hat{\sigma}$  also. Therefore the following distinctions must be always kept in mind: 1) short vowels that can receive the tone ( $\acute{a}$  and  $\acute{e}$ ) and those that cannot; 2) tone-long  $\bar{a}$   $\bar{e}$   $\bar{o}$  and unchangeably long  $\hat{u}$   $\hat{i}$   $\hat{o}$ , sometimes also  $\hat{e}$  and  $\hat{a}$ ; and amongst the latter again 3) such as have become unchangeable under the influence of the greatest tone-extension (as בַּחוּב \$ 149) and such as were originally unchangeable, and which might be called partly root partly stem long (as in סָּרָם, אָרָם, \$\$ 42 sq., 54 sq., בּבוּל \$ 153), since, e. g., the î in הכחים, \$ 141, is not originally nor even necessarily unchangeable, and therefore in certain conditions is more easily changeable.

A stem-long vowel, as well as a short one supported by its position, remains unchanged before all further additions: only from special causes does it gradually give way to the pressing compulsion of abbreviation, and  $\hat{a}$  more readily than  $f \hat{a}$ , \$\$ 196, 186. I. A vowel that is not necessarily unchangeable yields to this pressure more readily in a compound, where it remains as short vowel at least, than in a simple syllable, where it would have wholly to vanish; comp.  $\frac{n}{2}$  with  $\frac{n}{2}$ , from  $\frac{n}{2}$ , \$ 212 sq.

§ 87. 2. The tone not only protects behind it many a vowel that would otherwise disappear, § 23, but especially so before it: so that one may speak of an after-tone or of after-sounding vowels, and still more of a pretone. The most regular pretone is  $\bar{a}$  inasmuch as it is the primary vowel, an  $\bar{e}$  having its origin in the stem-form is more rare; before short words, and elsewhere in some forms of words suited for a greater extension of

the sound, a consonant having no proper and definite vowel not infrequently assumes  $\bar{a}$  as pretone, as  $\bar{c}$  (vobis), \$ 265, comp. \$ 243.

The pretone is found 1) in connexion with a single consonant standing before the tone in the formation of stems: בַחַב, בַּחוֹם, בַּחוֹם, יָקַל , קַלוֹן , יָקוֹם , בַּחוֹב , בְּבֶּר, but is wanting in the noun-forms with a stem-long vowel before the last radicle, as אָבָן, acc. § 153; a remains as pretone before the added syllables of the persons or of suffixes, but more rarely  $\tilde{c}$ : D12, שמוח, קחנה, on the other hand, שמי, בין נים, שמוח, שמוח, שמוח, קחנה stems two consonants without an unchangeable vowel precede the tone syllable, the pretone occurs if a vowel has its proper place in the formation of the stem under the second consonant, the first consonant, however, having no vowel at all, or at most none that could remain before the stronger tone syllable: יָרָאוֹ, בְּחַבָּם, וְרָאוֹי, \$ 250; elsewhere only in single favourable cases, as in the form of the plural of such short words as סְלְכִים, § 186. 2. — 3) If another stable syllable precedes the consonant which can become the seat of the pretone, the pretone is found more constantly only in the form 2021, § 140, and often if the tone syllable is a compound one, or (which is about the same) the penultima, therefore having much greater extension: יאכרון, יקראנגי; elsewhere there remains only an  $\bar{a}$  or a somewhat longer  $\bar{c}$ , § 188. The a as pretone in יְרָעֶיוּן, § 194, and the similar form אָרָווּ, § 189. 2, has a special cause. A mere tone-long o but seldom remains: אָלְצְרוּן, Ruth 2. 9.

If a new accented syllable arises at the end of a word, § 88. all the vowels which according to what has been said above depend upon the tone or the pretone regularly sink to the lowest measure, that is, to the most penurious, or absolutely necessary use of vowels, § 23. What was pretone disappears wholly: אָלְוֹרָי, the plural of אַלְוֹרָיָה, the fem. of אַלְוֹרָי, and this acc. § 164 from אַלְוֹרָי, But that vowel which remains firm in the second syllable before the tone, forms of itself a kind of countertone (comp. § 96) and appears sharper, clearer and somewhat stronger than it otherwise could, as the é in אָרָהָר, comp. אָהָהָר, § 70, and many other cases show. Also a short vowel which otherwise would disappear, can remain through the countertone, as the ŏ in אַרָּהָר, § 186.

In reference to the previously accented syllable, which as \$89. is generally the case closes with a consonant, it loses its short vowel, supported by the tone, or, acc. \$33, its long one, made long merely by the tone,

- 1) altogether before the new accented syllables beginning with vowels (with which most begin), since the vowel lengthened by the tone must then be shortened, and a short vowel, acc. S 23, cannot stand without the tone in a simple syllable: בַּחַבה למקפר from מְסָפּרִי 193, יַכְּאֹכ from יָכָּאְכוּן from מְסָפּרָי, from מְסָפּרָי, § 255, 2; otherwise the vowel long by the tone would stand as pretone, acc. \$ 87. If in cases where the falling away of the tone-vowel is possible, the first radicle standing alone has merely the  $\bar{a}$  of the pretone, the falling away of the pretone is likewise possible: in that case this distinction is made that the tone-vowel falls away before pronominal endings when they consist of vowels only, בַּחְבָה, \$ 193, but remains as pretone if the preceding pretone falls away on account of the addition of the much stronger suffixes, בַּחַבָּם, \$ 251. — The stem-long vowels or those that have become unchangeable through lengthening sometimes bring their sound a stage lower at least in quality: ô ê arising from au ai to û î: נְסוּלְחַי (I drew back) from נסוג, (his brier) from מיחו, \$\$ 196, 255; similarly the fully lengthened  $\hat{\sigma}$ : אַוֹק from אַנּק, \$ 187, and  $\hat{\imath}$  lengthened to ê: הַקְּים from הַקְּים, \$ 196, פּלִיטִים, \$ 187. — Occasionally a short vowel pushes forward into the syllable preceding in order to establish itself there more firmly, \$\$ 215, 245, 251, 255; comp. \$ 70.
- 2) In connexion with the suffixes אָבָּי and בּיִּבְּי which begin with a Sh'va that is never quite inaudible, \$ 247, the original tone-vowel, in conformity with its force, just described in 1), maintains its place either still long, as a kind of pretone, before the somewhat lighter אָבָּי , as בַּיִבְּיבָּ, or shortened before the somewhat heavier בַּיִבְּי, as בַּיִבְּיבָּן. But a short vowel can also, if a vowelless consonant precedes, push forwards to this, so that the Sh'va becomes quite audible: בַּיִבְּיָבֶּם or בַּיִבְּיבֶּם; comp. the details \$ 255.
- 3) As an accented ending beginning with a *closely* conjoined consonant Dn, 2 per. plur. perf., following its unaccented singular n, \$ 190, is almost the only one; as a rule only such endings of this kind are suffixed which, acc. \$ 85, can be unaccented. Such suffixed unaccented syllables are equal in respect of tone and general vowel-force to those final syl-

If only an unaccented vowel is affixed to the tone syllable, it dis-\$ 90. places the helping-vowel (\$ 26): בְּלָבָה הְנָבְּב \$ 216, but leaves the tone-vowel, even a short one, often unaltered: חַבַּ הַבְּלָּב, \$ 216, brings back again, however, the unchangeable vowel, which was somewhat shortened by other causes, with the destruction of the compound syllable, into its previous form: בְּלָהֵב הֹ : הַלְהַבְּה ָּבְּרָה . הַבְּהַיְבָה \$ 228.

## III. SOUNDS IN SENTENCES. PAUSE.

I. In the course and stream of a sentence each word § 91. hastens by without delay, and by the pronunciation of the first word in closer conjunction with the following the last letter of the one and the first of the other can more nearly unite.

Yet there is visible in Hebrew no further trace of the assimilation of consonants of a different sound than that -n sometimes changes into m before m: מוֹשׁלִי, Is. 35. I. — The vowels are more efficient in causing the closer connexion of two words that belong to each other:

1) each of the 6 first mutes receives aspiration through the influence of a vowel closing the preceding word, § 48. — 2) The particle מוֹשׁל (what?) joins itself to the following word by doubling its first consonant: מוֹלְישׁל (what?) so that it is sometimes written as forming one word with it: מוֹלְישׁל (what to you?); inversely, a word having the tone on a or e in the penultima connects with itself a following word accented on the first syllable by reduplicating its first letter: מוֹלְיִים שְׁם מִּיִּרְיִשְׁלִייִם, מִּיִּרְשָּׁם , מִיִּרְשָּׁם , מִיִּרְשָׁם , a concate-

nation of letters which is at times still further extended: אַ רְּכָּר מִּמִינוּ (מֵּשׁ מִּמִּינוּ) (מּשׁ מִּמֹנּ צְּאֹרְ (מַשׁ מִּמֹנּ צְּאֹרְ (מַשׁ מִּמֹנּ בְּאַרְ (מַשׁ מִּמֹנּ מִּאַרְ (מַשׁ מִּמֹנּ בְּעָתּ מִּמְנִּרְ בְּאַרְ מִּמְּבּר מִשְׁ מַבְּּאַר מְּמִבּר מִּמְּבְּר מְּמִבְּר מִּאַר מִּמְנִיתְ מִנְּבְּר מִּיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מְיִבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מְיִבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִּיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִּיִּבְר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיִּבְּר מִיּבְּים מִּבְּים מִּים מִּבְּים מִּבְּים מְּבְּים מִּבְּים מִּבְּים מִּבְּים מְבְּים מִּבְּים מִּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מִּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּים מְּבְּים מְּבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבּים מְבְּיבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבּים מְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבּים מְּבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּים מְבְּיבְּיבְּים מְבְּבְּים מְבְּבְּים מְבְּיבְבְּיבְּבְּים מְבְּבְּבְּים מְבְּבְּבְּבְּבְּיבְבְּיבְּבְּים מְבְּבְּבְּבְבְּבְּב

- \$ 92. II. At the end of a sentence, the place of the pause, the sound is much more firmly arrested and held back; it seeks therefore firmer standing place, and collecting itself dies away in greater repose, indeed possibly with the extension of the preceding vowel. However these tendencies of the language according to the historical formation of single words cannot show themselves in the same way in all cases:
  - 1. The retraction of the sound towards the beginning of a word is possible only where the final syllable in the course of the language can become changeable and toneless either from the first or by means of waste and wear. Accordingly 1) the person-endings of verbs, consisting of vowels merely, inasmuch as they are naturally very weak endings, become in pause so toneless that the tone restores the original vowel of the second radical: בַּחַבוּ and בַּחַבוּ for בַּחָבוּ and בַּחַבוּ from בַּחַב מחל אברל \$\$ 33, 130, 193, אָמָרִי for עָמָרִי (stand/ fem.) from עַמר § 226. — 2) The suffix 7— always becomes so toneless that the tone moving backwards extends the preceding Sh'va into a tone-vowel, \$ 40: לְבוּשֶׁךְ for לָבוּשָׁךְ, לְבוּשָׁרָ, comp. further § 247, sq. — 3) Triliteral final syllables which in the flow and stream of speech have transposed the vowel to the second consonant, in pause replace it in its original position; yet since the vowel belonging to the word in the flow and stream of speech also still remains behind the tone, in all cases é arises as the weakest vowel-sound, acc. § 40,  $\bar{o}$  however and sometimes  $\bar{e}$  where these vowels are natural to the stem: שַבָּשׁ for שָׁכֵם \$\$ 41, 146, יְחָצִי מֶרִי for יָבָי יָמָרָי, אָרָי יָהָי \$\$ יָהָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי י 224;  $\bar{a}$  only in אני I for אני. — 4) It is more rarely that the tone retreats to the penultima, which is a syllable in itself; וְכַחֵּכְהָ for וְכַחַכְהָ \$ 234, further in the particles אָנֹכִי אָנֹכִי אחה thou, אחה now, and sometimes elsewhere.

<sup>\*</sup> This has been named Dagesh cuphonicum; better Dagesh conjunctivum.

But just on the contrary, the tone in pause is strengthened in the case of verbal forms that have suffered contraction in the last syllable and that close with two toneless consonants \$ 232, in this way that it again descends to the last consonant but one and leaves the previous vowel in possession of its tone as pretone: אַבְּאַלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבָאָלַ, אָבְאָלַל.

- 2. The longer or stronger pronunciation of the vowels in § 93. the pause takes the following form in relation to the pronunciation without pause:
- ו)  $\dot{a}$  with the tone, which was originally a, becomes  $\bar{a}$ : בַּחַב, for בַּחַב 119, וַיִּישׁן 232;
- 2) ō admits of no further lengthening, but sometimes changes into the more open â, as אָלָה from אָשְלָּ Is. 7. 11, comp. \$ 94.
- 3) Where, however,  $\check{e}=\check{i}$  was originally the sound, there in pause in a compound syllable  $\acute{a}$  as an elevation of  $\acute{e}$  (§ 33) suffices, if without pause  $\bar{e}$  would stand instead of the unallowed  $\check{e}$ : חַחַ (he has shortened) Is. 18. 5; שַּשְׁ (give back) Is. 42. 22, instead of שָּשִׁ, without pause, and שַּשָׁ (ruddle) for שִּשָּׁ; on the contrary,  $\check{e}$  is everywhere demanded in pause where the law of the predominating vowel of a word, § 108, 1, requires in the last syllable the deeper e after a stronger syllable, that is, after a compound syllable and the strong  $\check{e}$ : פַּחַב, אַרָּחָב, where the  $\acute{a}$  without pause at least is not wholly unallowed, § 141. Th  $\acute{e}$  existing from various causes in the final syllable, \$\$ 33, 38 maintains its place in pause: אַרָּחָב, אַרָּחָב, also the e before a helping-vowel, arising from  $\acute{a}$  by a kind of resonance, very frequently remains: מְּבֶּחָב, אָרָחָב, סִרְּחָבָּר.

It is a rare extension of the lengthened pronunciation in the pause when the vowel, acc. § 93. I, passing to the penultima at the same time doubles the following consonant: אַרְהָלָּגוּ, הַבְּרָלָּגוּ, — See other and more occasional pronunciations in pause in the treatment of the forms.

III. Sometimes a word in the course of a sentence assumes a rare \$ 94. but not altogether impossible pronunciation merely for the sake of better assonance with a word of similar meaning in the same sentence, as the rare אַלְאָלֶץ, Is. 7. 11, to Hades, although according to \$ 93. 2 allowable, is yet chosen in order to form a closer assonance with אַלְעָלֶל to heaven.

### ACCENTS.

#### SIGNS FOR THE TONE OF WORDS AND SENTENCES.

\$ 95. In order to prescribe by means of suitable signs the true artistic management and changes of the voice in the fitting and reverent public reading of the words, sentences, and verses of the bible, the Massorites have established a great system of signs, which are commonly called accents, and which must here be explained, if but in general.

The most common sign indicating any check of the voice whatsoever is — *Métheg*, that is *bridle*. Like all accents, it is placed *after* the vowel to define what has yet to be added to the simple sound of the vowel.

The received doctrine of the school for the correct reading of the tone, or accent, of words and sentences is briefly this:

I. Every single complete word has, acc. § 85, its proper **\$** 96. The syllablei mmediately before this tone-syllable falls proportionally lower: on the contrary the syllable preceding the latter forms of itself according to the law of rhythm a second tone, or a counter-tone in reference to the chief tone, and this second tone, if the syllable in which it occurs is open, is very distinguishable, and is then most necessarily indicated by Metheg: קרשים, החכם הישכחם godāshîm \$ 186, 2; also even before Sh'va, but the counter-tone is rarely allowable in an imperfectly compound syllable: נְרָאָג kath'bú, וְרָאָג jìr'ú (they fear) which in that way distinguishes itself from יְרָאוּ jir'ú (they see), NVIII, acc. \$ 224 (let it bring forth!), Gen. 1. 11. If the second syllable before the tone is compound but the third open, the latter receives the counter-tone: ואורע: in the poetic accentuation, \$ 98, a mere Sh'va can be so distinguished at the beginning of a word: מַסְבַּלִּים, נָנַהְּקָה.

The same word can accordingly have several counter accents: לישועחף.

Special reasons for the counter accents lie 1) in the vowel before a rapid or Chatéf-vowel, \$\$ 60, 65, 31, since בְּחֵבִי (bochori) are frequently written. — 2) in

אָהְיָה ,יְהְיֶה ,יְהְיֵה and similar cases acc. § 65, in order to exhibit clearly in this connexion the naturally harder vowel; — 3) in some more emphatic prefixes, as וְּצַעוֹר \$ 231, Gen. 34. 13.

II. This simple rhythmical law of risings and sinkings \$97. until the last fall and check, extends also throughout the tone of the whole sentence, but very much enlarged and elaborated, and produces that great system of stately and solemn rhythm, according to which the punctuators prescribed the reading of the Bible, even its prose, and by means of which it is sought to bring the sense of the words, in smaller or greater sentences, into agreement with the requirements of rhetorical reading, or a kind of simple singing.

Since, then, the verse, which contains and limits a rhythmical whole, may be of very different extent, it must be in reference to rhythm like a net, which can be either closely contracted or widely extended, as is required, but still is never without limits nor rhythmical dismemberment. The fundamental principle of the usual rhythm is trichotomy, of which the successive parts increase in strength and depth, and may be represented by I II III: yet so that the penultimate part is necessary as the essential concomitant of the final part, whilst the first may be dispensed with. This being presupposed, the verse

- 1) may extend from the end backwards through 5 members, which we call a-e: of these a is the end and final rest, b the sinking belonging to a, c the counter-rise; d begins a second lighter half, and is again divided by e as by its own, and, therefore, the lightest half. But whilst the members must succeed each other in order, we find
- 2) parallel with them 4 incisions which we signify by 1—4, of which each is a stage stronger than the corresponding member, and as an abrupt, suddenly halting member may be several times repeated together with its concomitants, excepting the last i. e., I, which is also the end; but after the abrupt incisions the successive series must be again resumed either with the corresponding member ab2, abc3, or with a member one or at most two stages behind: abc2, abcd3, also 2-3, 3-4. This system, complicated at this stage, is made still more so
- 3) in this way, that usually the above as the second and rhythmically weightier half of a verse is preceded by another similar but somewhat lighter half, so that the verse divides itself, whenever it is possible, into this division I. II; the first half may then form in time another lighter half III. Both these divisions I—III as well as the incisions I—2 must have a preceding member as their proper sinking, whereby these foremembers take everywhere different forms in agreement with their incision or division; and hence instead of the repetition of 3c, 2c, or even 1c, serves as an easy transition.

But each of these members is further a substantive part of a verse having its own attendants, since only the above divisions and the incisions 1-2 must have the lesser member as their necessary sinking, and may therefore use it instead of Métheg, \$ 96. Hence arise, since every member may include two or more words, smaller sinkings for the words or syllables which precede the end and rest of a member and are connected with it, accentus conjunctivi or ministri in contrast to accentus disjunctivi or domini. Of these there are 5, here denoted by  $\alpha-\epsilon$ , corresponding to the number and grades of the members; but their use is determined in each case differently, according as the members become at the same time incisions or also divisions, since  $\gamma$  before 2c is ruled by it, a remains before Ib and IIb, vice versa B appears before IIa as before III c, before 3c at least after  $\gamma$ , and before 4d. But from c onwards the entire process of rest, sinking and counter-rising may be repeated on a smaller scale: before  $d\delta$  is formed  $\delta\delta$  as somewhat stronger than δ; vice versa δ appears as a sinking, δδ as a rising before  $\gamma$  of Ic or 2c. Lastly, if all these diversified combinations do not suffice, \$\beta\$ may then be made use of and repeated as many times as is needful: for before I a and b only one of these sinkings is allowable, before 2 b and II a  $\beta$ may be once repeated, but many times before c if it is used.

If one of two words which are to be more closely connected is a smaller one, or one of these sinkings does not well suit in that connexion, merely the conjunctive dash Magqef without any pause may be used instead of an accent, as: מַבְּוֹרֶבֶוֹ Gen. 1. 3. 7; on the contrary, should it be requisite for the voice to stay somewhat longer or more emphatically, merely on account of the sense, by a conjunctive accent, which is necessary from the connexion, the mark I is put after the word, called P'sta.

Finally, if the space for placing an accent from 2b upwards is too small to allow it scope to develope fully its proper force, secondary accents are used which show this, e. g.,  $\underline{s}$  for 2b if this accent would not have space before it even for a *Metheg*, and, therefore, its sphere is compressed as it were into the narrowest space.

The scheme of the whole, as far as it can be clearly presented with all secondary signs and possible combinations, is:\*

One point after a sign denotes one possible repetition of the accent; three points a possible more frequent repetition.

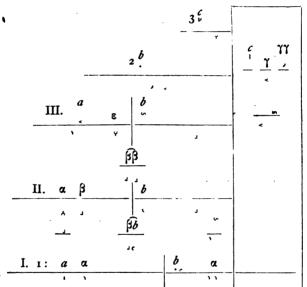
<sup>\*</sup> Comp. further as to the particulars of this and the following accentuation the Ausführliches Lehrbuch.

	<i>d</i>	
4		<i>e</i> 99
		8
	1	۸۱۰۰۰
<i>c</i> 3	<i>d</i> δ δδ	
ر د د		
b c		
2,Υ		
		•
<b>в</b> с		
III*		
<u>.                                      </u>		
Π, α β .		
, ,		
Ι. ι: α α b α c γ		
1 , , , , , ,		
<i>n</i> 3		÷

- I. 1 a Sillûq with Sôf-Pasûq; α Mê-r'ka. b T'ifchâ. c T'bir;
   accessory acc. Mê-r'ka k'fûla (double M.); γ Darga.
- II. a Athnach; β Mûnach etc., as in I. 1.
- III. b S'golta postpositivus (vid. as to the meaning of this epithet § 99): access. acc. Shalsheleth with P'stq. c Zarqa postpos.
  - 2b Zaqef; access. acc. Zaqef gadol. c Pashta postpos. access. acc. J'thib praepos. γ Mahpach.
  - 3 c R'bia. d Géresh; access. acc. G'rasháim. δ Qadma. δδ T'lisha q'tanna (small) postpos.; access. acc. T'l. g'dola (great) praepos.
  - 4d Pazer. e Qarnae-fara; & Jérach.

Modern scholars have called Ia and IIa imperatores; IIIb, 2b and 1b reges; 3c, IIIc, 2c, 1c duces; 4d, e, T'lisha g'dola, d comites; and again all of these domini, and, on the other hand,  $\alpha$ — $\epsilon$  with T'l. qt. servi: only the last two names originated in ancient times.

§ 98. The Psalms, the Proverbs, and Iob 3. 2—42. 6, show a different kind of accentuation, the poetic. It has the trichotomical plan I — II for its model, in which the penultimate part is weaker than the antepenultimate; and has not, indeed, as the prosaic, 5 members but only 3, and the same number of incisions and divisions, but beyond this is too elaborate and artistic to be briefly described. Its approximate scheme is this:



I. 1 a Sillûq; α Merka. b R'bîa and Géresh; βb Mûnách with T'ifcha postpos.

-Mûnach superior. - Merka with Zarga.

II. α Athnâch; β Mûnach. b Tifcha praep. ββ Mûnach with Mûnach.

III. a Merka with Mahpach: ε (pros.) Jérach. b Zarqa.
2 b Rbîa. c Shalshéleth, γ Mahpach.

γγ Qadma, 3 c Pazer. — Mahpach wi

- Mahpach with Zarga.

III. These accents for sentences supply at the same time \$ 99. the place of accents for words, \$ 96, inasmuch as they are written by those syllables which the latter belong to, and since Métheg is written only when no accent of a sentence can be used instead. This rule suffers, and therewith the clearness of the readers guide, an exception in the case of some of the more distant accents, which are placed, to distinguish them from others, either quite at the beginning or quite at the end of a word, without any regard to word-tone (above \$ 07 sq., called therefore postpositive and praepositive); but they are only few, especially in prose accentuation, and in the case of one of them, Pashta, the disadvantage is thereby avoided, that its sign, if the word-tone rests upon the third or fourth letter. is put with this also: הַגְלִינָה , הְנִלֵּינָה . — In poetic accentuation some of the smaller accents are promoted in this way, that a place is assigned them above the word.

As the signs of close union in pronunciation, § 91, are§100. found with the accentus conjunctivi, in like manner the pausal pronunciations, § 92 sq., are allowable with the accentus disjunctivi, yet under the limitation, that they are only used with the longer accentus disjunctivi; and this pausal pronunciation has great variety according to the sense and connexion of the words of a verse; there are also strongest and less strong pausal pronunciations, see the case § 184.

Before Maqqef, § 97, the merely tone-long final vowels  $\bar{e}$  and  $\bar{o}$  are mostly shortened to  $\check{e}$   $\check{o}$ , inasmuch as the counterrise through Métheg often removes to a previous syllable, even to a compound one (contrary to the common custom of orthography, § 96), but to this with this result, that through the more distinctly audible counter-tone Chatef-vowels are formed where otherwise they would be considered unnecessary: יְלְּשִׁבְּילֵּי, and Métheg here generally retreats to a mere Sh'va at the beginning of the word, as שֵׁמֵעִינָּא Zach. 3. 8. If on the contrary the final syllable before Maqqef retains its long vowel and the counter-tone cannot recede, the final syllable also suffers Metheg: בּוֹלְאֹדְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְּיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בָּיִלְיִה בְּיִלְיִה בַּיּלְיִה בַּיִּלְיִה בַּיִּלְיִה בַּיִּלְיִה בַּיִלְיִיה בַּיִלְיִיִּ בּיִלְיִיִּ בּיִּלְיִיה בַּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בַּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בַּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בָּיִלְיִיה בִּיִלְיִיה בִּיִלְיִיה בִּילִיה בּיִּיה בּיִיתְיִייִים בּיִלְיִיה בּיִיתְיִייִים בּייִים בּיִיתְיִיִּים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְּיִים בּיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיִיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בְּיתִים בִּיתְיִים בּיתְּיִים בְּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְּיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְיִים בּיתְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְּיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְּיִים בְּיתְּיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִים בְּיתְיִיִּיִים בְּיתְיִיִּיִים בְּיתְי

# SECOND PART.

# OF WORDS.

## INTRODUCTION.

#### STAGES OF ROOTS. PRONOUNS.

- \$101. The roots, or primitive words, of language, in reference to their origin and nature, pass through three stages. They are
  - 1. upon the lowest stage, expressions of feeling merely, consisting of vowels, aspirates, and soft consonants, for the most part remaining in their unformed state: מָּה or חַאָּ, with soft reduplication אַהְּאָ ah! oh! very rarely before a noun in an exclamation: תְּאָמוּר, o dictum! Mic. 2. 7; with a stronger reduplication הַאָּמוּר, an expression of malicious joy.

הוי the dull cry of seriousness, of threatening or of lamentation; and more definite expressions for these feelings: הַרה, and אוֹיָה with the fem. form; rarely אָלְנִי and אָלְנִי also אָלֵני the cry of continuous pain.

\$ 102. 2. The demonstrative roots, which name an object not in reference to its nature but only as pointing to it as existing, which merely presuppose it, therefore, as to its position and relation to the speaker, and may, therefore, not unfittingly be called pronouns, stand higher in the scale. But inasmuch as they express the conception of difference in place, they also, when used in an immaterial and tropical sense, serve to indicate the common relations of thought, becoming short, clear logical words to denote time, condition, motive and sequence, comparison and antithesis, and also confirmation and asseveration; for which purpose they undergo a long course of formation, by composition, strengthening and weakening, and other literal changes. Some are formed impersonally, as 737 behold,

Lat. en, ecc, but may easily become personal, i. e., denote a definite person as the one intended, as all this, Nia he (see further § 183 sq.), and range, as short relative particles used also in various ways for the further formation of idea-roots, unseen throughout the entire domain of language; many have also remained as petrified in a single form, § 110. The following is a general list of these:

- - 2) A particle of this sort becomes interrogative by special \$ 104. emphasis, with a literal change מה who? מה what? \$ 182.

A subordinated particle, which means now,\* can also serve, when spoken in an interrogatory tone, merely to introduce a question, and is then much abbreviated; in Hebrew it is very short — הַ, before an aspirate הַ, e. g. הַּמָּלָּה (shall I go) according to \$ 59, and then, according to \$ 70, סָבָּר (an sapiens —?) rarely before n as in הַמְּשָׁה (vosne—?), once בּיִבְּילָּה (bonumne erit? Lev. 10. 19) with reduplication of j between a and i; before a consonant with Sh'va as in בַּיִּבְּילָּה \$ 27.

Since this interrogatory particle is conjoined with a simple demonstrative word as אַה here, we get אַרָּה, or shorter in Hosea), meaning where: which when referring to a following personal ה confers on this the power of an interrogatory adjective, — welcher? ποῖος, qualis, whilst יש who?

<sup>\*</sup> Sanscr. -nu, Lat. -ne.

and מָה what?, as the personal pronouns he and it, are words complete in themselves and independent, i. e. substantives. With appendages in מֵאָחָ, according to \$ 242, whence? and (according to \$\$ 216, 36), or yet shorter whither?

The personal interrogative indicates easily, by an alteration of the tone, the idea of the indefinite who, whoever. אָנָה (§ 32) whither is at times repeated, like the Lat. quisquis, אָנָה וְאָנָה (§ 32) whither and whither, that is, anywhither; שְּאַנְה שׁׁׁׁׁׁׁׁׁׁׁׁ whatever, mostly with the negation nothing, but has, according to § 176, another origin.

\$ 105. 3) Relative pronouns arise-(a) from simple personal demonstrative words by special changes: אַשֶּׁעֶר (from אַשֶּׁעֶר (from אַשֶּׁעֶר (from אַשֶּׁעֶר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from אַשְּׁעֵר (from with common word for the relative who; — (b) from personal interrogatives with an altered tone (comp. Lat. qui together with quis), whence ישׁ is used in many ways as a relative conjunction, in general for the Greek δτι and δτε, for the German dass, da, denn, for our that, when, for.

The idea of the relative serves specially for the formation of the further idea of comparison, as German wie, Lat. quam and ut, ws, our as. shortened to a preposition, § 221, is placed a) before the demonstrative וה, הוש (with the a of the pretone), as this, that is, such an one, talis, in the pl. shorter  $\Box \Box \Box$ , fem.  $\Box \Box \Box \Box$ ; — b) with the pronoun of the third person it has coalesced so that two much used words have thence arisen: 72 (from ina) literally as that, and thence so, referring to something present or following; reduplicated 700 it becomes the stronger German also, our so, also referring back to what went before: 13 used in reference to place is ωδε in that place, interchanges however particularly in this meaning with 75, which is our here; thence according to \$ 104 interrogatively איכבה, אָיק, אָיךְ, how? and where? So אַ (from אַים secundum ea) referring to what went before, also in the second corresponding member: 12, 2 as so. 128 so, Is. 40. 7, and so much, Lat. tantum, compounded of this and a second demonstrative word serves for a limiting asseveration, only, yet surely, then however; and is mostly abbreviated in the frequent meaning only into 7%.

§ 106. 4) Roots that express ideas (concept-roots) are highest in the scale, and give, according to the consciousness of the nature of the things, clear and complete expressions of the thought. Through them arises the idea and formation of an action, the verb as opposed to the noun, and therewith the true foundation of human speech; and externally their higher

importance and meaning is visible in this that they must always be of the extent of three stable sounds: see § 5.

It is only rarely that the Hebrew goes beyond this prevailing law of triliteral root-formation, — partly by a kind of subsequent continuation of root-formation, in which especially additional softer sounds are interjected, as שַּרָבָּי in the book of Esther for שֵּרֶבֶּי, scepter, חַבַּעָּ pl. branches, Ez. 31. 5, as well as חַבַּעַ v. 6; — partly by the amalgamation of two words, as שַּבְּרֵבְּי frog points in this distinct pronunciation to שִבּּי to chirp and צַבְי מַ bog; — partly by naturalised foreign words, as שֵּלֵבֶ הַ מֹא אֹמֹגֹי pellex. But even then the verb may never contain more than four (§ 126) and the noun not more than five stable letters (§ 154).

#### GENERAL LAWS OF WORD-BUILDING.

A root of any kind has a definite ring and compass of \$107. sounds, but has beyond that no more distinct make and form. Yet a root can pass through essentially three stages of formation:—

- 1) It divides into *verb* and *noun*, and each of these two fundamental parts of language shows itself further in its essential divisions, e. g., the verb as active or passive, then the action as existing in the past or the future; these are the *stems* immediately proceeding from the, as it were, underground root. On these stems is formed then, in as far as they exist as nouns or pronouns,
- 2) the distinction of *person*, in reference to greater or lesser activity, number and sex; also passing over to the verb in as far as it shows the union of the main-word, or the person, (the subject) and the predicate of the sentence. Yet a word as we find it in a sentence shows itself
- 3) further always in a definite relation to the sense and connexion of its own sentence, differing therefore as to case and mood, in which the course of word-building first attains completeness.

A new course of word-building can then begin by means of the composition of words, when two or more words, formed

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so far as to indicate the person, collect together under the common bond of one case or mood, the subordinate being put foremost when there is inequality in the ideas: yet composition has never been developed in Hebrew beyond some few elementary cases, \$ 270.

For the attainment of the ends of word-building, external means indeed are chiefly used, as position of words, repetition or reduplication of whole roots or single letters in them, with different degrees of strength, coalescence of subsidiary particles expressing more general ideas with the word to be formed. But along with these external means, according to \$ 5, a nicer formation by means of *internal change of vowels* is very prevalent, through the rise of more important vowels and the alteration of the accent; and often both methods of formation are found together.

- § 108. Leaving out of view any prefixed conjunctions or prepositions as well as suffixes, a word forms in itself an independent and stable whole, in relation to which its vowels reciprocally affect each other. Every word, especially a dissyllabic or polysyllabic one, has accordingly a certain proportion or balance of vocalic sound, or a ruling vowel which can work upon the vowels nearest to it and determine their sound. This is seen in this, that
  - ז) the vowel after a strong long vowel or a compound syllable loves to sink as much as possible, becomes therefore i, or instead of i, according to \$ 33, ē: בְּחַהֵּ \$ 151, בְּחַהְ \$ 160; the vowel before a strong long vowel sinks similarly, if it has no further power to maintain itself as i (e), to a mere Sh'va: \$ 153, and even when it is a primarily long vowel it sinks to weaker or lower vowels: תְּוֹלִם אָנִילִם, \$ 163, לּנְבָּוֹלְם, \$ 163, הַוֹּלֶם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אַנִּילָם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, אָנִילִם, \$ 163. Similarly a before á likes to become the sharper i: מְבָּרִבְּי, \$ 213, בּנִוּלָם, \$ 140, comp. \$ 65.
  - 2) In accordance with the law of resonance a ruling vowel easily determines an undetermined weaker one, and one that is similar its neighbour, as קרְקר, \$ 154, בּהֶב, \$\$\$ 32, 146.
  - 3) Two syllables or words which accidentally would contain the same vowel sounds, sometimes avoid the assonance:

יַחְיִבִּי (thou art good, fem. sing.) for הְּיִשְבִּי  $\S$  139; שֶּׁבְלְּחִי for שָׁבְלְחִי with the change of a in the pause for the half-passive vowel o, Gen. 43. 14.

A word which through wear comes short of the common number of three § 109. root-sounds, seeks gladly in any way some extension and strengthening of its sounds: comp. §§ 112, 114, 227, 258, 263, etc.

Words which have either never advanced to full verbal or nominal \$110. formation, or gradually separating from the living part of the language and remaining in a dead and stiffened form express certain subsidiary ideas, e. g., TND very, — these words, in other respects very unlike, are classed together under the name of particles. However these particles are often taken up and with new life used again with great freedom, as, for instance, DYD little (parum), because another word for the idea is not at hand, appears a second time in every connexion, as predicate, subject, with the article, referring to the singular or the plural (while quite subsequently a new plural is formed from it, DYDD); and as may be said TDD with so, i. e., with such words.

As a short name for these formations from triliteral roots, especially the stems, the verb אָשָׁ to do has served as an example since the middle ages: accordingly the first radical is called D, the second y, the third b, e. g., שַּשָׁ D, i. e., a root the first letter of which is a J: the stems and the longer roots are named therefrom, e. g., הַּמְעֵיל, i. e., the strongly active verbal stem, § 122, בַּעַלֵּב, i. e., a stem which reduplicates the last radical, \$\$ 120, 121, or also a quadriliteral root, \$ 126. In the same way, y"y denotes a root the second radical of which is the same as the third, \$ 112.

In Hebrew the verb is not quoted as in our language by the infinitive, but in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person masc. sing. perf., as the primary person, acc. \$ 190, as and to write. Only with the roots "y the infinitive Qal (\$ 119) is generally quoted, as and to stand, because the perf. De makes the 1 inaudible.

THE KINDS OF ROOTS WITH REFERENCE TO THEIR SOUNDS.

In applying building to particular roots much depends \$111. upon the character of the root-sounds. To make the root described in \$106 three stable sounds are needed, that is, three sounds independent of the short vowels with which they must necessarily be pronounced; a long vowel however like the  $\hat{u}$  in  $m\hat{u}th$  or the  $\hat{a}$  in  $gul\hat{a}$  is rightly equal in value to a consonant with a short vowel, counts here, therefore, for a stable sound. If now the three radical sounds consist of three strong self-maintaining consonants, as כרד, כחב building shows itself in them in the greatest regularity and in general in the greatest clearness and completeness. But there is a very great number of roots which have not, more or less, this strength and completeness, which may on that account be called weak roots, and in which much peculiar to themselves is found, much also from earlier antiquity is more firmly retained. Yet the weaknesses of such roots are in part very scattered and isolated, occurring only here and there, as I often readily assimilates, acc. \$ 79, and as the gentlest aspirate N at times becomes quite inaudible, \$\$ 73, 75. The effects of an aspirate in the root (\$ 50 sq.) are very thorough as far as they go, but they rather concern slight changes (Farbenwechsel) of pronunciation, chiefly of short vowels. But, on the other hand, there are whole classes of roots which from their particular origin and nature must deviate more widely and thoroughly from the usual form:

- Sills.

  1. Not a few roots have remained nearer their original state or have returned nearer to it again in this way, that they contain only two unlike consonants with a short vowel: nad, pal: but because the formation of the root requires at least the power of three stable sounds, the reduplication of the last fundamental sound (or radical) takes place in all cases, by which means the actual root becomes madd, pall; and are hence called y y. But these last two radicals seek
  - ו) whenever it is possible to remain close together in one letter; a moveable vowel which would stand between the second and third radical is on that account put back to the first radical: אַרָּ, אַרָּבָּר, אַרָּבָּר, אַרָּבָּר, אַרָּבָּר, יַּתְּבָּר (where the a of the first radical of the strong formation as merely pretonic does not come into account), אַרָּיָר, אַרָּבָר for אַרָּבָר, אַרְּבָּרָר, (where a pretone by the weak formation more naturally arises). The final vowels, lengthened by the accent in the common roots, remain here before the double letter porportionally shorter, although the double letter at the end of a word, according to § 82, is in the present Hebrew not fully audible. Since however these stems are very

- 2) the two last radicals separate wholly from one another if either an unchangeable long vowel comes in before or after the second radical: סְבֵּיב, סִוּבֶּב, or the second radical itself is doubled: הַבְּיב however forms of the latter kind are not favorite ones in Hebrew, and are preferably set aside for others.
- 3) It is but rarely that the double letter falls in other cases into two separated ones; then most easily when the contraction and the separation make no great difference in the sound, not therefore in such cases as סְבָּי for סְבָּי, but in such as זְּלְלֵּגְּ together with זְּבְּלִּגְּ, and even then in a really stronger formation of fuller meaning, § 138.
- 2. Roots in the middle of which a long vowel, chiefly  $\hat{u}$ , § 113. takes the power and place of the second radical, which also, as the above named roots, are nearer to an original condition of the roots:  $\hat{u}$   $\hat{u}$   $\hat{u}$   $\hat{v}$   $\hat{u}$ . The root-vowel  $\hat{u}$  may indeed
- 1) if the language makes it necessary, change into its half-vowel v and this formation by that change become like the strong one; and this should continually happen on account of an originally long vowel which established itself before or after the second radical, or on account of the doubling of the second radical, as 719,  $\psi$ . 119. 61: but the language resolves on this but unwillingly and tardily, and prefers other formations. In formations these roots are treated
- 2) rather as roots with stable consonants surrounding them in the middle of which is a mere long vowel  $\hat{u}$ , which must fall in with the vowel sounds of the stems and suit itself to them as well as may be. When therefore a tone-long, or at least not an originally long stem-vowel has its place after the

second radical (and most of the formations are such), it then unites with the  $\hat{u}$  in accordance with the laws of sounds, or supplants it when it is the more important and determinative; this however only on condition that it become itself as unchangeably long as the vowel  $\hat{u}$  into the place of which it is come, § 54. Accordingly it maintains

3) in the short pretoned nouns like בַּחְבַּ, or instead according to \$ 32, בַּחָב, most its original force and mobility, and can there temporarily become a half-vowel: יְשָׁוָרִים, אַלָּרִים, אַלָּרִים, אַלָּרָים.

The roots with middle i have not in Hebrew been kept very distinct from those in  $\hat{u}$ , but the form in  $\hat{u}$  is everywhere the prevailing one, with the exception of the short pretoned nouns which clearly arise from  $\hat{i}$ : for roots like רִיב, שִים see besides § 127. Only a few roots show an original  $\hat{i}$ , and in most cases they begin with gutturals: in these the middle vowel, according to § 118, is always hardened to a consonant: אַב (enemy), אַב (weary) very rarely as a verb אָב (to hate), Ez. 23, 22.

Also roots with middle å are wanting: this vowel would become an aspirate between two vowels, if it would maintain itself: בַּאַר, מְנַהַר.

- \$114. Roots whose middle radical is a vowel, \$113, and those whose last radical is doubled, \$112, have, as the roots which still stand nearest to the original monosyllabic state, \$4, reciprocally great similarity in formation, and often a root of the one kind passes over entirely into the form of the other, more usually, however, y"y into "y" than the reverse. They are alike also in this respect, that in the progress of the language they gradually change into stronger stems, or reversely originally stronger roots fall together into them in this way that a more stable third radical
  - ווֹ s prefixed, as the אַ"ץ sometimes change into "שָּבּ יִישַׁר יִשַּׁר וֹשָׁרָּר, with the perf. אַנְיּרְ אָנוֹרְ אָנוֹרְ אָנִירְ אָנִירְ אָיִי אָיִי אָיִי אָנְיִי אָנִי אָנְיִי אָנְיִי אָנְיִי אָנְיִי אָנְיִי אָנִי אָנְיִי אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְיִי אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּבְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּנְייִ אָּבְּייִ אָּבְיּיִי אָבְייִי אָיִי אָנְייִי אָבְּייִי אָּבְייִי אָנְייִי אָנְייִי אָנְייִי אָנְייִי אָבְּייִי אָבְייִי אָבְייִי אָבְּיִי אָבְייִי אָבְייִי אָבְּייִי אָבְייִי אָבְייִי אָבְייִי אָבְייִי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְייִי אָבְּייִי אָבְּיִי אָבְּיִי אָבְייִי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְּיי אָבְּיי אָבְּיי אָבְּיי אָבְּיי אָבְיי אָבְּיי אָבְּיי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְּיי אָבְיי  אָבְּיי אָבְיי אָביי אָבְיי אוּי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי אָבְייי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְיי אָבְיי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי אוּיי א
  - 2) is affixed, which is more rare: בְּרָה to grow, with כַי which remains almost alone in the perf., the adjective and the infinitive; or
    - 3) the middle sound is hardened into a stable aspirate: מְנָל circum-

cise with מול or מוּל, מוּל imperf. Niph. from מָם, סמָּשׁ more Aramean as part. Qal of מַבָּיים imperf. Niph. from מַבּיים מוּל

- 3. Those roots which have originally a vowel either be-§115. fore or behind approach nearer to the strong formation than the two above-named classes. The roots with  $\hat{i}$  and  $\hat{u}$  as their last radical have so closely united themselves that the sound  $\hat{i}$  prevails and radical  $\hat{u}$  is maintained almost alone in  $\hat{i}$  to rest, and partially in ענה to be bowed (also to distinguish it from ענה to answer). The formation is chiefly this, that
- ו) in most stems, those, that is, which have a mere tone-supporting or tone-lengthened vowel after the second radical, the  $\alpha$  as the natural stem-vowel uniting with the  $\hat{\imath}$  forms  $\alpha e$ , this  $\alpha e$ , however, thro' the influence of the final tone is shortened into  $\acute{e}$ ; which  $\acute{e}$  (written  $\vec{n}$  according to § 16) resolves all more definite short vowels into itself in such a way, that only for certain new formations does an  $\alpha$  or o instead of  $\acute{e}$ , required by the formation, come into the vacant vowel place, §§ 142; 238, 3. This weak  $\acute{e}$  vanishes before an additional vowel:  $\vec{n}$  is  $\vec{n}$ ,  $\vec{n}$ ,  $\vec{n}$ ,  $\vec{n}$ , where in the first case  $\hat{u}$  and in the second  $\alpha$  is appended, and  $\acute{e}$  before them, according to § 45, is displaced.

In accordance with a mere Aramean and poetic formation the ending is retained more strongly before any addition as ae or in the verb âi:

- 2) If in the noun a vowel, naturally or indeed usually unchangeably long, comes after the second radical in the strong form, then it appears here also, and as the third radical then separates itself, taking its further form according to the general rules, as יָּלָי, fem. יָּלָי, according to \$ 54 for יָּלָי, fem. יָּלָי, fem. יָּלָי.
- 3) Those forms which have the accented vowel originally after the first radical, where also 1 more frequently appears,

have remained, like those in Y'y, nearest the original form: אַרָּי, the last in Pausa), or those which leave the second radical vowelless, in which case i always appears: הַּשְּׁתַּחַה, \$ 121.

- The roots with a vowel as their first radical, which might S 117. originally begin with i or u, have for the first radical, when it begins the word, almost constantly i or rather j; on the other hand, if the first radical closes the first syllable of the word after a prefixed letter they very strongly hold fast u: נולָר, ילַר, אולָר, \$ 123; only in the imperf. Qal, § 139, does the sound of i hold out on account of the similar perfect. The forms with a whole syllable prefixed hold a middle place, in which i mostly appears: החודע, החילה, החובח, \$ 124. — As a long vowel, which at the beginning of a word would arise from a prefix letter and the first radical,  $\hat{u}$ and  $\delta$  has not infrequently sunk by the reduplication of the following consonant: נולְדוֹ for נולְדוֹ (they were born); and gradually such a reduplication of the second radical becomes so prevalent that a "D is treated just like a "D, but rarely except with sibilants and liquids: יצֵע to spread out from יצֵע, and the late word מַרָע, (knowledge, conscience) from יַרע.

Roots which begin with the weakest aspirate  $\aleph$ , cause it and its vowel  $\alpha$ , when this  $\alpha$  comes into contact with the  $\alpha$  of a prefix, often to coalesce and disappear in  $\delta$ , although the  $\aleph$  is usually retained in writing: so  $\mathring{\wp}$ , \$ 139,  $\mathring{\wp}$ , \$ 160.

Roots that begin with assimilate it in the numerous stems which after a prefix close the first radical without a vowel, very often, according to \$ 79, with the following consonant, as לַבָּי for לַבָּי, \$ 139, לַבָּיבָּ for לַבָּי, \$ 139, לַבָּיבָּ for לַבְּיּל, \$ 139, לַבְּיבָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָּ לַבְּיִּרָ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לִבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִּרְ לַבְּיִירְ לִבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לִּבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ בְּיִבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לְבִּירְ לִבְּיִירְ לַבְּיִירְ לְבִּירְ לְבִייִּרְ לְבִּירְ לִייִירְ לְבִּירְ לִבְּיִירְ לְבִּירְ לִּבְייִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּייִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּייִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִבְיּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִבְיּירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּייִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִבְיּירְ בְּיִירְייִייְיְייִירְ בְּיִיבְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִיבְיִייְיְיבְיּיִירְייִירְייִירְ בְּיִיבְּייִירְייִירְ בְּיִירְייִירְ בְּיירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייִירְייירְייירְיייִירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייירְייייירְיייירְייירְייירְייירְיייירְיייירְייירְיייי

Therefore all kinds of roots which begin with these or even with another soft sounding letter have much that is similar; and their forms also so interchange that the building of שָּׁם, as one of the most easily changed and yet most frequent affects other forms. This appears in the very common verb הַּלְיהָ to go, which follows entirely the form of a שׁ in all the forms in which its first radical becomes vowelless by a prefix, יוֹלָהְ, imperf. Qal, \$ 139, הוֹלִיהָ Hif., \$ 122.

- 4. If several weak letters come together in the same root, then \$118.
- ו) the first and second radical are both treated as weak, if only the middle one is treated as strong, as in פֿעַה, אָחָה, נְשָׁה.
- 2) יו not infrequently stand as second radicals before ו as the last or rather before ל"ה, \$ 115, and in that case always remain as strong letters, subject only to the common laws to which other letters are subject: חָנָה, לְּהָה; the same happens at times before gutturals: עַבָּיָה, סווץ not before the weak א: אוב, און, whence the Hiph. אינה, \$ 122.
- 4) Three weak letters can meet together only if one or two are gutturals, in which case a guttural before א"ע" is treated somewhat more strongly מָנָה and הַנָּה, \$ 65, רַאָּה, \$ 232.

Roots whose first and second radical would be the same or very closely related are not original; in like manner a T-sound as the first is not often found before a S-sound as the second (§§ 78, 124); and 751 never appear in a root close together.

# THE FIRST STAGE OF WORD-BUILDING.

#### STEM-BUILDING I. OF VERBS.

#### I. VERB-STEMS.

Abstract: —

1. Simple stem: בְּחַב.
3. Stems with external addi

2. Intensive stems: סְחַרְחַר בְעַנֵן הָחֵב (Pi-ʿel).	3. Stems with external addition:	
	Causative stem: הְלְחִיב (Hif-îl).	Reflexive stem: נְלְתֵּבּ (Nif-ʿal).
4. Intention-stem: בוּחָב (Pô-cel).	Reflexive-intensive stem: הְחַכַּהַב (Hithpa-el).	

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S119. I. In the simple stem, which springs immediately from the root, the stem-vowel moves backwards towards the end of the word, ktáb or katáb, to express motion and action, that is, the verbal idea: on the other hand, this vowel moves forwards to the beginning of the word, kátb or kéteb, in order to express rest, that is, the nounal idea.\* The simple verb, therefore, has its characterising vowel after the second radical, after the first radical, on the contrary, the ā of the pre-tone:

Following the example of Jewish grammarians, the simple verbal stem is called קל Qal, that is, light, and the rest מְבָּבִים heavy.

\$ 120. II. Of the iterative or *intensive* stems of the strong verb those distinctly audible with reduplication of the last two radicals are very rare: סְחַרְחַר to be ever going hither and thither (e. g. of the beating heart): those with reduplication of the last radical, also rare, as רַעַנוֹן to become green, as שַׁאָנוֹן to be resting, express by means of this reduplication a permanent state or condition.

On the contrary, the stem with the very easy reduplication of the middle radical is very usual: it expresses an active and energetic exertion and effect, and

- ו) often the pure intensifying of an action, with such fine shades of meaning as our languages can scarcely with circumlocution express, as לַבְּהֵ to scribble, scrawl contemptuously spoken, Is. 10. 1; שַׁבֵּל to scribble, scrawl contemptuously spoken, Is. 10. 1; שַׁבֵּל clamitare, אַבָּרְים sectari with שַׁבֵּר to shiver and shatter, שַּׁבַּל dimittere and שַׁבֵּר to break, שַּבִּל מְשֵׁל מָשֵׁל מָשֵׁל מָשֵׁל מָשֶׁל מַשָּׁל מַשָּׁל נִים to be ever speaking proverbs, Ez. 21. 5, and the sing. מַשֵּׁל מִשֶּׁל מִשְׁל מַשָּׁל מַשָּׁל מִשְׁל מִּים מִינִים מִּים מִינִים מִינִים מִּים מִינִים מִּים מִינִים מִּים מִיבְּים מִּים מִּים מִּים מִּים מִּים מִּים מִּ
- 2) the simple *producing* and *causing* of an action, and in that way comes gradually to correspond with the causative stem,

In the Ausführliches Lehrbuch our English words consort, subject and consort, subject are compared. Tr.

<sup>\*</sup> How little accidental this is can be seen from this that this distinction of the noun holds elsewhere, in that the tone even in those cases in which it had originally an entirely different position has a strong forward tendency: "" for "", \$ 160, and the numerous feminine nouns in toneless -eth, \$ 173; on the contrary, in the feminine ending of the verb with the tone hasting backwards we have "", \$ 190.

\$ 122, in all its meanings and capacities, as הַּאֲבִּה to annihilate from הַּאָבִּה to perish, but in many roots with the difference that this stem expresses rather production or causation by means of mental activity and force of will, as יַלֵּה to help to bring forth from יַלֵּה to bring forth, or as from יַלֵּה to be great, יַלֵּה to make great with care (as children, plants) or also to magnify, i. e., to honour, הַּנְהַרּל to make great generally. Comp. further \$ 133. And in this force of a stronger active verb it serves

3) very much in deriving active verbs from nouns, as בָּהֵן to officiate as priest (מֵלְשׁׁ to divide into three, or in another connexion to do on the third day (מֵלְשׁׁׁיִשׁ). Such cases as אַנָּב to cut off the tail (וַנֵב) also belong to this class.

Of guttura's "ץ, acc. § 69, mostly with half-reduplication אָרָחָ, חָּחָל, הָּהֵן, הָּהַלְּ, הָּהַלְ, הָּהַלְ, הָּהַלְ, הָּהַלְ, הָּהַלְ, הַּהַלְ, הַּהַלְ, הַּהַלְ, הַּהַלְ, but also בָּרַרְּ ;, and always with הַבָּרָרְּ : רַ

Otherwise unusual intensive stems are almost invariably \$121. formed in the roots with "y on account of the great weakness of the second radical, and very frequently in those with y"y. The y"y avoid the reduplication of the second radical by inserting ô instead, which ô appears elsewhere although but rarely, \$125, as The to divide, \$125, as

At the same time the y'y form stems of stronger meaning by the reduplication of both of the two radicals that compose the short root: בָּלְ לֵּיל to shatter, בָּל to roll from בַּל to shatter, מוּל to roll from אַנְי agitare from אַני to sweep away, from the short root מַנְאַר to sweep away, from the short root אַנַי.

Stems like D.P. \$ 33, D.D in the new meaning to alter, 527 to curse (properly to put, to flight) are but rarely formed throughout.

## § 122. III. Stems with external addition are the following three:

- ו. The causative stem is formed by prefixing with emphasis the active vowel a, in Hebrew spoken harder with the aspirate ha-;\* but in the perf. the stem, acc. § 141, is הַּמְעֵיל Hif-il, to cause to write. This stem, which has the strongest active force, can
- 1) govern not only one, but also, if derived from an active verb, two (or, indeed, if the simple verb already governs two, three) accusatives, as הַפִּיל נּוֹרָל he makes the lot to fall, i. e., casts it, from הַבְּרָלוֹ לְּנוֹרָל נִוֹלְ עָּרְלְהְי שָׁחִדְּעָרְלוֹ אָחִדְּבְּרְלוֹ , if form הַבְּרַלוֹין לְנוֹרָל וְנוֹרָל וֹנוֹרָל he made his servant see his greatness, אָחֹדְנְיִנְי נְרוֹל וְנוֹרָא thy majesty hast thou made me see great and fearful. In this construction with two accusatives Pi´el § 120 follows Hif-ʿîl but rarely. This stem can
- 2) with intention present the action entirely independently without any nearer definition, as הְּמְטִיר it rained (undefined what) from מַּלְלִי to lament from אַלְלִי woe! § 101; derived from verbal ideas, הִּלְּיִי he acted wickedly, הַּלְּיִי to keep peace, it to send forth roots, הְשִׁרְיּה literally to show a white colour, albicare, almost the same as our to be white. In this usage also Pi'el can interchange with it: הִּלְשָׁה and חַשָּׁה to have difficulty, that is, to labour, to suffer. Lastly, since the idea of strong exertion, effort, attempt is conceived as confined wholly to itself, from Hif-îl and Pi'el arises
- 3) also the inchoative and desiderative stem, as שַּמָּשׁ to begin to shoot, 2 Sam. 10. 5, הְּאָרִיךְ senescere, הְּמְחִילִּ dulcescere, הַאָּרִיךְ to endure, to last, מַעָּט decrescere, חַמֵּט horrescere, רוֹמֵט stupescere, רוֹמֵט to wish to ascend, Hos. 11. 7.
- \$ 123. 2. The reflexive stem is formed by prefixing n', or more fully (\$ 140) hin-, so in the perf. וַפְּעֵל Nif-'al, often answering to the

<sup>\*</sup> But very seldom softer אֶּפְעִיל, Mic. 7. 15; Zeph. 2. 14, or still harder אֶפְעִיל, יֻּיְפָעִיל,

Greek Middle, as לְּמְרֵּלְ to hide one's self, שְׁמָרָ polátteoðai, נוֹעִץ βουλεύεσθαί, חַחָּב μάχεσθαί; often in mental states, as אָנָאָנָ to sigh, groan, δδύρεσθαί, חַחַ to repent. A reflexive action referring to several persons becomes reciprocal: נְבָּשׁ הָּעָם to converse, עַבְּשׁׁ the people crowd one another together, חַבוֹנ to litigate (one with another) from הּוֹכִיח to judge. This stem can become active only with certain conceptions by means of another adaptation, as vaticinari aliquid, שִׁבְּשׁׁ to swear (literally to bind one self by 7 holy things) something.

This stem is frequently used in a purely passive sense, as to be born, תְּבֶּים to be anointed.

ווֹלֵד, פֿ"ו אָ; see further \$ 140.

3. Prefixed hith-\* confers a reflexive meaning just as the \$124. n'- of Nif-al, but with this difference, that hith- has a stronger. force than n'- and also on that account is much more rarely used in a purely passive sense. It also forms the reflexive stem, called Hithpa'el, only from the active intensive stem Pi'el and the stems corresponding to this, § 121; and often both stems exist together, as מבס to cover, החבסה to cover one's self. Otherwise the stem has greater force than Nif-al, as אהחנשא to exalt one's self in passion or pride together with the simple נשא to exalt one's self, החנקם to thirst for revenge together with DDI to revenge one's self; and naturally from the nature of some ideas, the zealous energy of the self which they express can issue in deception, as הַחַחַלָּה to make one's self sick, i. e., to feign sickness. Yet it often marks only suffering states, as החקצף to be angry, החבעש to become wavering. But inasmuch as it can refer the action also mediately (in the Dative) back upon the agent, it has the power, which the weaker Nif-al lacks, to govern an accusative, as החפרקו אחדהגומים they tore from themselves the rings; whilst otherwise it can govern an accusative only by a further change of the idea of the verb, as properly to consider by one's self, to consider deeply, and then to observe anything, \psi. 119. 95.

The n, acc. § 78, is always placed after a sibilant as the first radical, and its form is determined by that of the sibilant, as

<sup>\*</sup> Instead of which rarely ah-, as in אָלְהַלְּלָּל, ψ. 76. 5.

הְּצְּטֵיֵּר, but is sometimes, acc. § 80, assimilated with the sound of the first radical, as הפסה, הזכה.

The 'D in Hithpael, acc. § 117, prefer the sound of 1: הְחַבַּוּלָּח, הְחָבֵּע הַ form like הְחָבִּע הַ is of later origin.

- S125. IV. The appearance of an unchangeable ô (from â, a lengthening of the active a) after the first radical, by which means a new strong active stem is formed, is in Hebrew but seldom in any other roots than those indicated in S121. The stem appears as a secondary kind of Hif-il and Pi'el, as viv to strike root, in the rage, i. e., to fly away; but, becoming more independent and substantive, it assumes the meaning of a telic stem, that is, of an action whose end and aim it is to affect another, or even to determine him to reciprocity, on which account it has always an accusative of the person in government: Denvi to litigate with any one, that is, actively contend with him, viv to make anyone know something in order thereby to determine him to the appropriate action, that is, to appoint him.
- §127. Many an increased verbal stem, whose meaning is gradually becoming simple in the feeling of the language, begins also in its form to fall back into the simple verbal stem; especially in the participle § 170, and then also in a tense or mood. This is specially worthy of notice
  - 1) in the Hif. of many roots whose middle radical is a vowel, in which the first syllable easily falls quite away and Qal arises: from רְּבִי, to understand, perf. בְּיִלִים, and indeed בְּיִלִים, acc. § 196, imperf. בִּילִים, inf. רְבִיק, and רְבִּי, from בִּילִים, to lay, perf. always בַּיִּל, inf. בִּילִים,
  - 2) elsewhere in many isolated instances, aז יוֹכל imperf. Hof-al, properly to be put in power, but because it means simply to be able, the perf. returns to an intransitive Qal בְּבֶּי, הְינִינוֹ a Hif-il to add is often shortened into Qal בְּבֵי, הְינִינוֹ to pour itself forth, בְּבָי to long for in the perf. retain the Nif-al form, but in the imperf. change into the intransitive Qal, הְבִיי, בְּבַייִר, הְבַייִי.

#### 2. VERBAL STEMS AS ACTIVE AND PASSIVE OR HALF-PASSIVE.

In the passive the person of the sentence (the subject) is § 128. placed in the position of the object of an action affecting it: the agent is therefore generally quite left out of sight, and in fact in Hebrew the passive is usually found only when the agent cannot or should not be named, as הומה האיש slain is the man, and with a neuter reference זוֹ it is announced. The agent is but rarely added mediately by a preposition, \$ 217; in Hebrew the active construction is everywhere preferred when the agent is to be distinctly named (so that on account of this preference a construction, which was begun in the mind as passive, can suddenly take a new form, as: I was - by day consumed me heat and cold by night, i. e., by day by heat and by night by cold consumed, Gen. 31. 40), or where a simple active verb is sufficient to express the idea, although less distinctly, as by conceptions of motion: the gold came back 그렇, i. e., was returned, the offering ascended, עלה the altar, i. e., was laid upon.

In order to distinguish the passive conception from the \$129. active the following internal vowel change is properly sufficient, that the thick and depressed sound u presents the action as confined to the person and cleaving to him, whilst a, partly as the primary sound (as in 121) and partly as a clearer, ringing and more forcible sound, presents it on the contrary as coming forth from the person, energetic and active.

Yet an idea midway between that of a strictly active or passive action is conceivable, the idea of a state merely into which something is come without our being able to name or point to the agent, as אַרָּב to be full, אַרְבָּן to thirst; therewith connected is, first, the idea of an action half determined by mental suffering and in so far not voluntary, as אַרְּב to love and אַבָּי to hate are the names of actions which at the same time flow from certain mental states and passions which rule the man; secondly, the idea of a readiness for an action as flowing from a gust and liking, as אַרְב aucupari, בוע בעום ביו jaculari. This fine distinction of half-passive or so called intransitive ideas, which modern languages greatly obliterate, shows itself in the Semitic consistently by a

sort of weakening of the passive vowel change, as is explained below, § 130.

I. In the simple verbal stem the Hebrew has not formed the \$ 130. full expression and meaning of the passive.\* On the contrary, the half-passive, as well as the active, form is frequently found in this stem; and the former in this stem only, because of the derived verbal stems each one from its origin is decidedly inclined to the expression of the active or its opposite, whilst the simple stem is by nature the most indefinite. Since the active, § 119, retains a after the 2<sup>nd</sup> radical, the half-passive distinguishes itself by o under that letter (acc. \$ 33) as to be small, ינר to fear, or much more frequently by the weaker e (properly i weakened from u conf. \$ 29) instead of which, however, acc. § 33, á is very often found \*\*, as וַקן to be old, טהר to be pure, נבל to wither, שֹקרשׁ to be holy, לבשׁ to clothe, or rather to be clothed, now to rejoice, you in pause you to hear, properly to be attentive; e. g., וקן ושבע he was old and satisfied with days, 1 Chron. 23. 1. — Both forms and meanings are but rarely found in the same simple stem, as מַלֹא to be full, מַלֹא to fill, Esth. 7. 6.

The reflexive Nif-al distinguishes itself from the intransitive Qal as a stronger expression of self-activity, as Yny to hear, Yny to hearken, yet in as far as it indicates merely a state it often coincides with it, especially in roots containing a double letter, as nn and nn to be in despair and to despair.

§ 131. II. The purely active stems Pi-el and Hif-îl have the full distinction of the passive; and in this way, that the passive u instead of the a (or instead thereof in the perf. i, acc. § 141) takes up its position in the first of the two firm syllables, whilst the second syllable also changes its e, which became its possession acc. § 108. 1, and is in Hif-il merely by accident lengthened

<sup>\*</sup> Because the distinguishing vowels of the passive would not be sufficiently strong and lasting; it is rightly otherwise in the noun, \$ 149.

<sup>\*\*</sup> e must only be heard 1) in pause, if á remains in continuous narrative, § 94; 2) in all forms in which the 2<sup>nd</sup> radical must have a long vowel in a simple syllable, as before suffixes אוֹם he loved him; 3) in all איל acc. § 75: אוֹם, אים, אים, אים.

into i\*\*, into an a. This vowel change is made through the whole word, at least in the strong verb: קַפְּקָר, הָפְּקִיר הָפְּקִיר הָפְּקִיר הָפְּקִיר הָפְּקִיר הְפָּקִיר הְפְּקִיר הְפָּקִיר הְפְּקִיר הְפִּקְיר הְפִּקְיר הְפִּקִיר הְפִּקְר הְבְּיִלְה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיְלָה הְבְּיָר הְצִּוְּה בְּצִוּה בְּיִר הְצִּוְה הִבְּיִר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיְר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבְּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבְּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבְּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבְּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִּיר הְבִיר הְבִיר הְבִיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְיר הְבְּיר הְרְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְּיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְיר הְבְּיר הְבְייר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּיר הְבְּייִי בְּבְיר הְבְיר הְבְּייִים הְבּיר הְבְּייִים הְבּיר הְבְּייִים הְבּייִים הְבְּייִים הְבּייִים הְבְּייִים הְבְּייִים הְבִּייִים הְבְּייִים הְבְּיִים הְבִּייִים הְבִּייִים הְבִּייִים הְבִּייִים הְבִייִים הְבִּייִים הְבִּייִים הְיִים הְבִּייִים הְיִים הְבִּייִים הְבִייִים הְיִים הְבְייִים הְיִים הְבְייִים הְיִים הְבְּיִים הְיִים הְבְייִים הְבְייִים הְיִים הְייִים הְייים הְייִים הְייים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִייְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים הְייִים

Hif-îl of יש and יש is no longer, acc. § 117, distinguished clearly in all roots, as we find both הַּוֹשִׁיר and הּוֹשֵׁיר: in Hof-al both roots coincide, acc. § 42, as הַּוֹשֵּׁר, הוֹשֵׁר ; in such cases as (inf., the being born) the û is shortened according to § 117.

From "y Hif-il הַּקְים acc. § 113; in Hof-al the u generally advances into the first syllable with so much emphasis that it has here as lengthened û the power of a radical as well, and these roots become so far like the בסות. Similarly from y'y Hif-il הַּחַבּה, Hof-al הַּחַבּה, but also הִּחַבּה with reduplication of the first radical, and the reduplication of the second before affixes is always audible.

III. If an active verb, therefore acc. § 122 especially Hif-îl, § 133.

subordinates to itself two objects, then by the passive the first object is made necessarily the principal word, person, or subject of the sentence, but the second can remain, as הַּרְאָה אָח־הַּקְּמוּנָה he is made to see the pattern; הַּנְחֵלְהִוּ I have been made to inherit to me sorrowful months, Job 7. 3, comp. Is. 5. 8.

On the other hand, Nif-al, if also very often used as a simple passive, allows readily a new reflexive turn to arise from the passive idea, as נְּחָשׁ to be warned, but also to take warning, to make one's self seen, to appear, נְּחָשׁ to let one's self be found, e. g., לְבֹל i. e. acc. § 295 of all, Is. 65. 1.

### 3. THE VERBAL STEMS WITH THE DISTINCTION OF TENSES.

## The meaning of the tenses.

\$ 134. Since the verb indicates acts and effects, and these are scarcely conceivable without the idea of time, the distinguishing of tenses belongs to the earliest formation of the verb. The simplest distinction of time is this, that the action is primarily conceived in reference to an experience and recognition of it, but then immediately in direct opposition thereto, consequently either as already finished and so before one, or as unfinished, therefore as becoming and coming: that is Perfectum and Imperfectum, these names not being understood in the narrow sense of the Latin grammars. The Hebrew has remained essentially at the primitive stage of this most simple distinction; it is only in a more limited extent that the participle as defining the time is added to these two everywhere prevailing and fundamental distinctions, \$ 168.

The ideas of the finished and the unfinished, or coming, action, sharply distinguished from the point of time of the speaker, lead to those of the purely past and future, as לֹא הָיָה וְלֹא יִהְיָה it has not been and will not be. But since these ideas can be used relatively according to the power and freedom of the imagination, and in such a way that the speaker, in whichever of the three divisions of time (past, present, future) he may conceive to himself an action, can present it either as finished or becoming and coming, — by this means a very complex

and various application of the two ways of expressing time which the language has at command is obtained, and word-building might establish here a number of fine distinctions; but the Hebrew has but few of these, and accordingly it is essentially the connexion and sense of the whole passage that must in each case decide as to the sense of the one or the other tense-form.

### I. The perfect is found accordingly

\$ 135.

- ו) in actions which the speaker presents, looking from his present, as finished and past, either generally, as אָמָה עָשֶה what hast thou done? or narrating, as In the beginning when אַבָּ God created the world. This perfect, however, when referred to some other past thing, becomes our pluperfect, for which the Hebrew has no more definite expression whatever, as God blessed the works which he אַבְּעָהְיִי (at that time, as is evident) had made; from afar אַבְּעִיהְיִי I had heard thee, but now has mine eye seen thee, Job 42.5; on the contrary, referred to something future, it becomes our future perfect (fut. exactum), as and then בּי נִרְאָה when he shall have appeared . . . he will etc., acc. § 337. 3, Is. 16. 12.
- 3) in actions which as a matter of fact are neither past nor present, but which the will of the speaker prefers to present as finished and certain, as in the unalterable and sure declarations of God's will אָלְחָלֵּי I give to thee, or in contracts, or in the restful and confident expression of the securest hope, when we use the present for the future, ψ. 20. 7; 31. 6; 116. 16; θρ. 3. 56—61; 4. 22; Is. 26. 15. And therefore frequently in conditional sentences for our fut. exact. § 355.

- § 136. II. The *imperfect* divides itself into three divisions that lie far apart:
  - 1. An infinished action is in the most direct antithesis to the past a coming, a future action. Hence our future tense. In this meaning also the imperfect admits of a great number of different divisions and applications:
  - 1) In quite simple sentences it signifies the simple future, but in narrative style the then future according to the relations described, as the son who should reign (regnaturus erat) died, 2 K. 3. 27, and the dependent future also, Did we know בָּי יֹאמֵר that he would say (dicturus esset)?
  - 2) It is found in doubtful questions: הַאָּמְלֵּל shall I go? also in rejecting questions, הַאָּמְל shall I not do it? and this usage is also possible if the thing meant thereby is in fact past, as הַּיִּמָּל should Abner die? or, since he is really dead, should he have died? moriendumne ei erat? 2 Sam. 3. 33; ψ. 137. 4; Gen. 43. 7. Or in merely concessive sentences, followed by an adversative sentence, if an adversative sense has not been already expressed in the previous sentence, as of all trees shalt or mayst thou eat, but not sq., Gen. 2. 16; Job 21. 3; similarly in sentences of general possibility, as creatures יְּדְרָּאִת that one will or may, can crush, Latin conterenda. Or, lastly, strongly denying with the nature of a strict prohibition, as לא האבל or with the thought of impossibility, as thou hast done what לא יִיִּיְנְשָׁה should or ought not to be done, Latin haud facienda.
  - 3) It can present that which is to come to pass as the intention of the agent both in dependent sentences and in narration, as he commanded נְי שְׁבוּן that they should return, ut redirent.

The transformation of the imperfect by shortening and then again by lengthening it in order to express absolutely the intending and demanding of an act, § 223—228, is connected with this usage.

2. An unfinished action, as one that is coming to be from the point of time of the speaker, can be conceived as extending into the present, near but not yet past: in that case we use the present, and here the imperfect often coincides, according

to a somewhat different conception, with the perfect, § 135. 2, as for the question מֵאָיִן בָּאתְ whence comest thou? strictly, art thou come? since the coming can also be conceived at the moment of the question as scarcely finished, אַבּא also is possible.

But an unfinished action can be thought of also as one that repeats itself or that lasts, and can so far compare with the present of modern languages; the sense then is found from the whole context only; as מַּמֵּר it is said, that is, repeatedly; or in comparisons with common circumstances of every day life, Dent. 1. 31. This is especially important inasmuch as it can be transferred according to the context into the past, in order either to describe in subordinate sentences a state lasting during the time of the chief action (which is somewhat more unusual in Hebrew), or (which is very frequent) to represent in independent sentences manners and customs (answering to the Latin imperfect) as מַּנְיִי he did so year by year; 40 years long was I grieved with the people. That it is the past that is spoken of must always be apparent from the whole context.

3. An unfinished action, as that which is coming to be, now forming itself, arising, can also signify: a coming to be in the past, which may be compared with the Greek Aorist and more especially with the German imperfect. This occurs when the imagination considers an action, that has in fact taken place and is past, as to its origin only, as to the moment of its occurrence, so pursues as it were the fact from first to last in its origin and occurrence. Accordingly it is here necessary above all things that something from the past be presented, or at least indicated, to which the discourse can further link itself: if such a support has been given, the event, as linking itself thereto and unfolding itself from that point, can then be indicated more briefly and quickly in reference to its origin and occurrence. Therefore it is natural to this imperfect to have its own shorter form, by means of which the action in reference to its origin merely is thrust suddenly into the indicated period of the past and made to depend upon it, and to have a closer connexion with some foregoing adverb of time: whence in Hebrew have sprung wholly peculiar and new forms, \$ 231 sq. By the poets this imperfect is used with greater freedom, but

always limited by the fundamental conditions as explained, as wherefore from the womb, when I was just born אַמוּה did I not die? Job 3. 3, 11; 4. 15; 15. 7. Further, this imperfect accords with the idea of מַבְּם not yet or before.

It is different from this case and belonging rather to the second, if a past act is translated, exceptionally and purely as a lively presentation of the past, into the imperfect as corresponding to our present, whether this is done in the beginning or the course of a narration; either because the speaker thinks of the nature of the act more than of its time, Num. 23. 7, or to bring in the protasis and apodosis the events nearer together as following rapidly upon each other,  $\psi$ . 18. 7.

Lastly, each of the tenses can be limited in its sphere by remarks as to condition, as in the perfect: probably in one had killed me, but has not done it (as appears from the perfect); in the imperfect: then if that be I will rest, but it is not yet so, therefore I would rest, Job 3. 13. 16; 32. 22; \$\psi\$. 119. 87.

### Their form.

\$137. Externally the distinction between these two tenses is most strongly marked in this way, that the personal signs are put after the verbal stem in forming the perfect, but before it in forming the imperfect, the finished action showing itself appropriately in its forward, and the unfinished in its backward, position; the third person, sing. masc. perf., however, has no ending, since the perfect always ranks as the principal tense: בַּחַב; the same person of the imperfect prefixes ', acc. \$ 191:

But further, the more usual verbal stems make a yet nicer distinction between their two tenses by means of internal vowel change, in accordance with a fundamental tendency of word-building \$ 5; and the general law is this, that the imperfect as describing what is unfinished, what is not yet present, and what continues, has a liking for stronger and *longer* vowels.

- §138. 1. In the simple stem, in which this vowel change is most felt, the following changes occur:
  - ו) The a of the active Perf. becomes in the Imperfect the less clear and longer ō (for ŏ acc. § 33): בְּלָהֵב .— The Imperf. of gutturals 'בּיִחְלֹּג , יַחְלֹּג , מָחָלֹר \$ 34, קְּתָּל acc.

2) The e or o of the Half-passive Perfect is so distinctive that it is found even in "y with expulsion of the 1: מָם נוֹ to die, מִם to escape, אוֹם to be good, אוֹר to be bright. Of y"y: אוֹם jaculari. — In the Imperfect this e or o, just as in the case of the passive, \$ 131, is changed in the second syllable into a, before which in the first syllable the sound i-e is often reestablished: אָרְוּבְּלֵּי, וְבְּרֵלְי, from אָרָבְּי, more noticeable in guttural יַבְּרַלְי, אָרָבְּלִי, and even יְבִּרְלָּי, and even יְבִּרְלָּי, and even יְבִּרְלִּי, and even יִבְּרָלְי, and even יִבְּרָלְי, to go; of y"y: עָרָר, also עִּבְּרִלְי, and in יִבְּרָל to straighten, make narrow), יִבְּרָל to straighten, make narrow), יִבְּרָל to blush as well as יִבְּרָל and even יִיבַר from יִבְּרַל to blush as well as יִבְּרִל יִאוֹר, יִבֹּרֹא and even יִבְּרַל from the perf. יִבּרֹל to blush as well as upon the beginning.

The y'y often separate from each other their double sound in the Perf. with an active meaning, as to roll, trans., to act with hostility against, but not in the Imperf, acc. § 112. 3.

Since in the Imperfect of the roots beginning with a vowel § 139. the vowel of the prefix coalesces with the first vowel of the root into one long vowel, this first syllable obtains such a preponderance that the last is spoken only with the weakest vowel, therefore with  $\check{e}$  and instead of that, acc. § 33, with  $\acute{a}$  or  $\bar{e}$ ; in which case the distinction between the Active and Halfpassive is lost. Hence

- ו) from ישַׁר acc. § 55: יַנַק, נָּלַק, to suck, יַעַּר, to be straight; in יִרָּא, יָרֵא to fear the Imperf. has the half-passive vowel.
- 2) the **YD** might originally have had at the beginning  $\delta$  from a(e, i, acc. \$ 32) u: but in order to distinguish more clearly their Imperf. Qal from Imperf. Hif-il, \$ 141, instead of this vowel we find  $\bar{e}$ , which more nearly corresponds with i; and after this strong sound acc. \$\$ 41. 108 in the second syl-

lable ā in all cases, excepting that the gutturals have a: יֵלֵר, אָיֵרָר \$ 117, אַרָּד, on the other hand מֵבֶּא acc. § 75. In pause יֵבֶּיל, יִירָע, יִירָשׁ. — In another way יַבּיל is formed acc. § 117 from יַבֶּיל to pour.

Some א"ם have retained at the beginning  $\delta$  (=  $\hat{a}$ , originally  $\delta a$  §§ 37. 18), after which long vowel the second syllable has a very short vowel: יְאֹכֵל , יֹאכֵל , in pause יִאֹכֵל , elsewhere e is only in יָאֹכֵּל ; from אֹכֵל also יִאֹכֶּה , יֹאכֵל ; this w is rarely left out in writing. Comp. something similar § 140.

The ז"ם acc. § 79 generally assimilate the ז: לְּבֶּל, and retain it but rarely and in poetry, but before gutt. 'y regularly, as so well as יְנֵאֵרְ, לְּבֵּר, but still חַהַּיִּ from חַחַן to descend. Since in the contracted stems the vowel of the first syllable becomes stronger, § 108. I, they also show in the last syllable the commencement of the same process of lowering the vowels, as יְבֵּיֹר, as well as יִלֵּבֶּר, יִבְּיֹר; a is found constantly in צַּבְּיִר, and even e constantly in the very worn and frequently recurring form יְבַּיַר, from יְבַּיַר, Also the very frequent word חַבְּיִל to take regularly assimilates its in this Imperf.: בּיִבְּיִר, Such stems must not be confounded with the Imperfects of y"y which acc. § 112 advance the reduplication into the first radical, בּיִבָּי, from בַּיִר, דַּבְּי.

Whilst in that way the Perf. is expressed in the shortest manner possible, the Imperf. proceeds from hin- as originally the fuller stem-prefix § 123, contracts that and the personal sign into one, and resolves the 1 into the following consonant, but retains continually ā as pretone before the e which in the last syllable is instead of the a of the Perf. according to the rule § 108, 1: מַנוֹב ', from gutt. 'שִׁינוֹב ', דְּיִנוֹב ', from gutt. 'שִׁינוֹב ', דְיִנוֹב ', בי וֹחַב ', מוֹב ', יוֹב ', בי וֹב ', מוֹב ',

3. In Pi-el and Hif-il the original a of the first syllable \$141. is retained in the Imperf., but in the universally shorter Perf. it is sharpened to i: בַּלְבֵּל הָּבָּיִב הְּבָּחִיב הְבָּחִיב הְבַּחִיב הְבַּחִב הְבַּלְּבֵּל The i of the Perf. is so sharp here that it is retained in יַבַלְּבֵּל and in אַיבַלְּבֵּל and in אַיבָּשִׁשׁע, שִׁשְשׁשַע, שִׁשְשׁשַע, שִׁשְשׁשע, שִׁשְשׁשע, שִׁשְשׁשע, שִׁשְשׁשע, שִׁשְשׁשע, בּאָבָיל and in אַבּרָל זוֹ tiself;\* but e appears instead after the ה of Hif-il in gutt. בּאָבִיל ; יַחֲרִים , הָחֲרִים :ע"ו. From יַשְׁיִם , הָּאָבִיל in Hif-il their first radical with the primary stem-prefix אַבּר that no such vowel-change takes place: יֵלִיל, הָּתִלִּיל, הַּתְּלִיל, הַּתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתֹּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל, הַתְּלִיל יִבְּיִבְּיִב בְּתַבְּיִב בְּתְבִּיב בְּתַבְּיִב בְּתַבְּיִב בְּתַבְיב בּתְבּיב בּתְבִּיב בּתְבּיב בּתְבּיב בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּיב בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּיב בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתִבּים בּתִבּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתִּב בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבּיִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בְּתִבּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בְּתְבִים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּיבְּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבִּים בְּתְבּים בְּתְבִיּת בּתְבְּתְבּים בְּתְבּיב בְּתַב בְּתְבִים בְּתְבִּיב בְּתַ

The e of the second syllable of the Perf. Pi-el is so weak that in the very frequent word 777 to speak, contrary to § 33, only e' appears, often a: PPI, 72%,  $\bar{e}$  on the contrary constantly only in pause, and in instances like NDO, acc. § 75. But the Imperf. has always  $\bar{e}$ , a' before gutt. only when there is no pause.

The  $\ell$  to which the last vowel in Hif-îl is lengthened, acc. § 35, is retained in both tenses alike. Yet the y''y retain the short vowel before the primarily double consonant almost wholly in the same way and with the same change as Pi-el: 200 or 200, 300; with the reduplication

<sup>\*</sup> For such cases as אַרְבֶּלְתְּנוֹם, in which e, acc. § 115. I, thrust itself forward, are rare; and yet more rare is such a case as אַרְבַבְּתְנוּם (we shamed them), I Sam. 25. 7, where e appears before I only in the countertone § 88.

pushed forward מוֹל, הַחֶל , in gutt. שׁל ,הַחֶל (to profane) and this also with the usual form of the last syllable שׁלָייִב.

In the intensive stems, according to \$ 121, of a like meaning with or at least similar to Pi-el, as well as in the few stems with four radicals, the internal vowel-change is the same as in Pi-el; Hithpa-el also generally follows Pi-el; but the Passiva and those reduplicating the third radical, as מַצְנַן \$ 120, have no such internal vowel-change at all.

The ל"ה lastly are of quite a peculiar and special character, inasmuch as the vowels of their final syllable do not fit in with the usual forms of the last syllable. They rather retain the ae, with which they originally ended, worn down to é, with the rejection of other distinctions, and only for the general distinction of the Perf. from the Imperf. substitute in the former ā for the é of the latter: Qal with no distinction of the active or the half-passive: יְנֵלֶה , וְנֶלֶה , וֹנְלֶה , בֹּלָה . In verbs both שׁנות. Qal and Hif. often coincide: יֵלֶלָה , comp. \$ 224.

The א"ל sometimes follow this form, acc. § 116, אַרָּלָא הָרֶּכָּא for הָּקְּלֵּא, דְּכָּא; in אַרָּא, \$ 138, the final é has been changed into ē as harmonizing better with N, acc. § 65.

#### STEM-BUILDING II: OF NOUNS.

§143. The noun presents an idea not as in motion, impelling or impelled, but as resting, as a simple object of thought. But this can be thought of again in two ways: either the noun presents the idea wholly by itself (abstract) as the name of a thing, which, as an entirely self-sufficient and independent noun (as a substantive), e. g., fall, felling, forms the most direct opposite of the verb, — as Infinitive or thought-word (Gedankenwort) follows less independently the meaning and force of its own verbal-stem, \$\$ 236—240; — or it presents it also as predicate (concrete), accordingly as belonging to a person or thing, which predicating noun approaches the idea of the verb (which is always predicative), and this most closely as participle,

more distantly as adjective or as an independent (substantive) denomination of an agent.

In general the noun as a word at rest has fewer light and §145. liquid vowels, greater extension and breadth. This appears not only in the stem-building, but also throughout all further stages of building.

The endings for marking gender and number in as far as they serve also for defining more nearly the meaning of many stems, must be referred to here by anticipation: see further § 171 sq.

#### 1. Nouns with a simple stem

pass most fully and distinctly through the three stages of internal building which are possible:

1. The first form: when the essential vowel with shortest \$ 146. utterance takes up its position after the first radical, so that the second is properly vowelless, there is produced, acc. \$ 119, the exact opposite of the verb, therefore the name of a thing having the force of a substantive, whether of general meaning: מַבְּרָ שִׁנְּהָּלָ שִׁנְּיִלְּהָ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְיִּלְהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְּיִלְּהְ שִׁנְיִּלְהְ שִׁנְיִּלְהְ שִׁנִילְ שִׁנְיִּלְ שִׁנְיִּלְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּבְּי שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִׁנְ שִּי שְׁנִים שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנִים שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנִים שִּׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנִים שְּיִים שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שִׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנִים שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְ שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְשְׁנְ שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעְיִים שְׁנְעְ שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעְ שְׁנְעִים שְׁנְעְיִים שְׁנְעְיִים שְּׁנְעְ שְׁנְשְׁנְ שְּׁנְ שְׁנְעְיִים שְׁנְעִים שְּׁנְעְיִּים שְּׁנְעְיִּים שְּׁנְים שְּׁנְעְּיִּים שְּׁנְּעְים שְּׁנְעְּיְים שְּׁנְעִים שְּׁנְעִים שְּׁנְעִים שְּׁנְעְּים שְּׁנְעְּים שְּׁנְעְּים שְּׁנְעִים שְּׁי

The three original stems, therefore, are: בְּחָבֵּ, בְּחָבֵּ, בְּחָבֵּ, בְּחָבַּ, בּחָבַּ, בּחָבַּ, בּחָבַּ, בּחָבַּ, בּחָבּ, 

From gutt. לֹי: חַחַשְּ, but with א, acc. \$ 75, אָבֶּאָ, with which a yet further shortening is possible, acc. \$ 75: אַבָּאָ, — In gutt. 'y forms like חַבְּר, מַחַר both stems, בַּחֶב and בַּחֶב, coincide, and פֿ remains only in בַּחֶב and מַחֶל אָבָּל (deed), but also אָבֶּל (tent). But since the א, acc. \$ 62, attracts to itself the accented vowel and also prefers, acc. \$ 65, ε, בַּחֶב and בַּחֶב are not distinguishable in אָבָּר, בְּאַר; then, as a further change, acc. \$ 73, the forms הַאָּר , בְּאַר easily become הַאָּר , בַּחַה, spoken as rêm, tôm, and sometimes written בַּחַר.

The ליה have here generally retained 1 and י, acc. § 115. 3, but is more frequent than 1. These letters, acc. § 57, must in this position have the sound of pure vowels, and then the common and sharp i attracts to itself the tone of the word so strongly that a and e after the first radical vanish and o at most retains its place only as shortest ŏ: יְבָּי, חֲצִּי, חֲצִי, שָׁרִי, but in pause חֲלִי, חֲצִי, מְבִיי, חַבּי, מַרִי and יִבְּי, On the contrary before the more rare u the tone of the word retains its place: שְּבִּי, where a is rightly retained at the beginning, אָבִי, acc. § 72. Forms like הַּבִּי, הַמִּר are rare. — Many words have wholly lost the weak final radical: the particle not as well as יַבְּי, prend, and the particle weak of son, name, yw wood, ye end, y friend, and the particle weak 5209. 3.

From "y and "y 1) the stem with a: חֵוֹל, אָוֹן מֵוֹח, but at the same time from gutt. חֵוֹל, בַּוֹח לִי, with אָיוֹא לִיא acc. \$\$ 75. 43. But from a-u the contraction into ô is very frequent: But from a-u the contraction into ô is very frequent: שׁוֹל voice, פוּמ פוֹל thigh; more rarely of â-i into ae and this further into ô, worn down î: רִיק and רִיק, or ô changed to ae, \$ 36. — 2) The stem with o acc. \$ 42: שׁוֹל street, שׁוֹל goodness, ווֹל wind. The stem with i is probable in תוֹל trembling, בִּיל בָּיל contention, רִיב song, see \$ 127. — With ביל also ביל people

§ 43 from the stem with a, יו fluidity from the stem with i, arising from  $riui = r\hat{i}i = r\hat{i}$ , אי island, אין fem. desert.

From "y": אַ from the stem with a; שׁ or somewhat longer אַרָּלְּיָּר from the stem with i; אָרָה, אָרָה. With which several that originally sprang from y"y, acc. § 79, must not be confounded: אַרְּיִּר for אָרִּה, אָרָה, אַרָּה, מְרָה for אָרָה, אַרָּה for אַרְיִּר, אַרָּה for אַרְיִּר, אַרְּהָּר for אַרְּיִּר, אַרְּהָּר for אַרְּיִּר, אַרְּהָּר for אַרְּיִּר, אַרָּה for אַרְיִּר, אַרְיִּר for אַרְיִּר, אַרָּה for אַרְיִּר, אַרְיִּר for has its e yet further lengthened, acc. § 35, but fem. is still אַרְיִּר woman and pl. אַרְיִּרְיִיּר from i or ' as אַרְיִיּר ip or acc. § 43 ip cord, 'שׁ homage, 'שׁ water only in the pl. בייִר אַר אָר further softened into e: אַרְיִּר אַר young of the flock, אַבָּ mouth, or worn down to f: 'שׁ heap, 'שְׁ ship, also 'שׁ in other forms, § 213.

The essential vowel is but very rarely thrown back upon the second \$ 147. radical (as is constantly the case with Aramaic, which is poorer in vowels): רַבַּאָּ man in poetry only rarely for רַבָּאָ, וְּהַף winter acc. \$ 43, יוַ זְּיִ sickness; בַּיִּע shoulder in Pause בַּיִּבָּע \$\$ 33, 92, בַּיִּב honey with á merely acc. \$ 86. Then it is possible that a vowel, acc. \$ 77, should be prefixed to the vowelless first radical: אַשְּׁבַע finger, אַשְּׁבֹּע cluster.

- 2. The second form: with accented essential vowel after the § 148. second radical. By this peculiarity these nouns show that they have a greater likeness to the verb and follow more closely its characteristics: they divide themselves on that account, in accordance with the main division of the verb into two tenses, into two very dissimilar classes:
- r) The noun when derived from the *Perfect*, which is the \$149. sign of what is finished, experienced, becomes a *predicating* word, to express as participle or as adjective what is seen and apparent in a thing, its properties. It lengthens the essential vowel, so that it sometimes becomes unchangeable: nevertheless the first radical retains regularly its a as pretone as in the *perf. Qal.* Among the *five* stems that arise by distinguishing the essential vowel and its length is
- a) that with  $\bar{a}$ , originally having an active meaning, but since the part. act. commonly expresses itself more definitely, § 151, this more simple stem has been left only for some few adjectives: אַלָּיָּר wicked, סַּכְּל foolish, יַדְיָּ straight, דְּלָּל new; אַלְּיִּ pierced, i. e., one who has fallen in battle, so that probably an original  $\delta$  has become  $\bar{a}$ , acc. § 37. It is to this class that
- b) the large number with o most closely correspond, which also express lasting properties, and retain the o either by a constant reduplication of the third radical before affixes or by

- c) those with  $\bar{e}$  express more temporary states and conditions: אַנָּב hungry, אַבָּע satisfied, מַנֵּבן guilty; but also לְבֵּב heavy.
- d) The stems with unchangeable û have sometimes a pure-passive meaning: שְׁרוֹם written, and sometimes they form adjectives of a half-passive sense: אָרוֹם minghty also numerous, בערום, מוווין mindful.

It is especially noteworthy here that MAN also can be joined with an accusative, Cant. 3. 8, like amplexus with gladium, e. g.

e) Those with  $\hat{i}$  are either derived as purely passive from these by a refinement of the  $\hat{u}$ , but generally as substantives: אָשָׁי prince, properly, exalted, or from those with  $\bar{e}$ , merely by lengthening it: אַיַ and אָשָׁי weary. An agent also, with special reference to his readiness for the action, can be indicated, acc. \$ 129, by means of half-passive vowels: אָבָרָא insidiator, אָבָרָא prophet, lit. speaker.

Very rarely like Aramaic without the  $\bar{a}$  of the pretone: לְּחָיל fool, אֱלוֹהָ God.

From אָל": a) בּקם comp. \$ 151; b) good; c) אָל" insolent; d) איר (gone astray, false; e) ביר a messenger.

From "שָ": a) בְּל humble, יַר living, הוּת terrified, more rarely the vowel is lengthened before the double-letter בּהְ guiltless, בּאָר despairing, בּאַר many and בּאַר evil, with the art., acc. § 181, and with disjunctive accents often בּאָר, אָרָ. d) and e) אָרָהָּיָר acc. § 112. Further only הַאָּר fat acc. e).

In the not the stems with a o and e are not distinguishable, acc. \$ 115. 1: not beautiful, not drained in a passive sense; yet there is also not distinguishable, or also lowly. On the contrary, with the unchangeable and e, acc. \$ 115. 2, not made, not guillless. — Shortened forms as in \$ 146 are: 1) the primitive words for kindred and relationship not father, not brother, not father-in-law, which originally must have ended in a vowel, aba, abo, which they have also retained in some of their forms, \$ 211; — 2) hand, not blood, not fish for not not even before suffixes. The shortening of these and similar substantives, \$ 146, can easily be accounted for from the nature of the noun as contrasted with the verb, \$ 119.

2) The noun when derived from the Imperfect, which \$150. describes something that is unfinished, not actually existing, but thought of merely, becomes an abstract noun, and is used to present the verbal idea as a mere thought, or conception. Hence from the active יְלָהֹל and the half-passive יְלַהֵל are derived the Infinitives also may be formed therefrom, less of active, as אָרָשׁ laughter, that is, both laughter and an object of it, Job. 12. 4, than of half-passive ideas, and these most frequently with the feminine ending: יִלְשְׁעָה from עָרֶה acc. \$ 238, unrighteousness together with עַבֶּלָה, acc. \$ 146 something unrighteous\*, הַשַּׁעַ laziness, שִׁבָּלַה love, אַבָּלַר cunning.

The abstract nouns become more independent and definite by lengthening the accented vowel, by which means a pretone also is created; and sometimes with a half-passive sense, as בְּבָּל hunger, בְּבָּל guilt, sometimes with a passive, as בְּבָּל reward; with the feminine ending, as assembling, בְּבָּר superfluity, and with a lengthened to unchangeable ô: בְּבָר peace, בְּבֵּר honour; also at times with e reappearing as pretone, בַּבְּר foreign land, i. e., abroad. The abstract nouns from many intensive verbal-stems also simplify themselves to these somewhat longer but yet simple stems: דְּבָר speech from בְּבֶּר curse from בִּרָּר.

From של such words rather take the form of אָצָה knowledge, עֵצָּה counsel, אָצָה sleep, that is from the Infinitive \$ 238 peculiar to these roots.

Third form: a new and naturally unchangeable vowel is in-§151. serted, having so much strength and predominance that the vowel of the other syllable is deeply lowered. In this way is formed

1) the idea of doing, acting by means of the insertion of unchangeable  $\partial$  (arising from the strongest active a) after the first radical, after which the second although accented syllable is deeply lowered, acc. § 108, therefore spoken with  $\bar{e}$  (instead of i), in itself a weak vowel the existence of which depends wholly upon the compound syllable. This is the form of the

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;differing as doixla and doixov". Ausführliches Lehrbuch

active participle of the simple stem, שוחב writing; sometimes it is derived as even a stronger word from half-passive verbs, as אַהָּב a lover, one who loves, from אָהָב \$ 129, and often from nouns: מַבָּר writer, lit. one who has to do with a book אַהָּב vinedresser from בָּרָם vineyard. — The e remains even in gutt. לי on account of great lowness: שִוֹשֵע היי היי מבר מבר מבר מבר מבר מבר זונים מבר אַיים מבר ג'ים מבר אַיים מבר ג'ים But from "y the stems with a new unchangeable vowel have not been formed: as part. act. the old stem ID \$ 149, preserved here only, remains: ID standing, RI coming, rarely acc. \$ 37; and for forming the adjective in conjunction with these, the stem e: II peregrinans, II peregrinus.

\$152. Some of these words, on becoming substantives, lengthen the final vowel to a: אָלָע worm, שוֹתְם signet, שׁלֶל antiquity and eternity; with an influence upon the first syllable: אַ hammer.

2) For the most decisive derivation of abstract nouns from **§** 153. verbal and other ideas an unchangeable  $\hat{u}$  is inserted after the second radical, before which the vowel of the first radical becomes scarcely audible; this  $\hat{u}$  is derived from the passive participle, and the form answers fully to that of the Latin retributio, lit. the being-repaid from the passive part. retributus. Instead of this  $\hat{u}$  there is at times  $\hat{i}$  rarely  $\hat{e}$ , on the one hand: נציב statua, לֵליא imprisonment, לֵלי lamentation, on the other hand, ô and from this â: חלום dream, שכול orbitas, עים ardor, poetic, פֿחַב writing, Aramaic. The feminine ending also is often added, and not rarely with reduplication of the last radical: גבורה , מולה priesthood from בהן priest, מלוכה מלוכה מלוכה heroism from בור hero, \$ 155; קהבה congregatio. The plural form is also possible, acc. § 179: וקנים senectus from וַקוֹ senex, הנטים embalming from the simple verb חנטים.

From א"D: אַבּוֹם acc. § 59, pl. אַבּוֹםים. — The ז"y give the meaning by circumlocution rather, by means of the feminine form with  $\hat{u}$  or  $\hat{i}$ 

in the first syllable: דּוֹמֶה silentium, קִימֶה rising; similarly שׁיבָה dwelling, 2 Sam. 19. 33: root שַׁיבָ, inf. קַשֵּׁב \$ 238.

Nouns from quadriliteral roots, \$ 106, are never adjectives, but in all \$ 154. cases substantives of uncertain origin. Their pronunciation is rarely so short as in the first form: מְלֵנְי soft cushion; usually the distinctive vowel is a e o after the second radical, also after the first: מְלֵנְי scorpion, שֵׁבְיְלָ scorpion, שֵׁבְיִלְ sickle, בּיִלְי locust from an earlier בּילִי בְּילִי בְּילִי comp. \$ 37, otherwise בּילִי the first; but often the vowel in the middle of the word is lengthened, and also still more by reduplication: מְלֵנִי לִּילִי botom of the vine, בְּילִי hoar-frost, שִׁבְּרִישׁ pebble, שֵׁבְּרִישׁ spider, שְׁבַּרִישׁ bat, שְׁבַּרִישׁ fin. Quinqueliteral בַּיִּלִים, \$ 105.

#### 2. Nouns with reduplicated and augmented stems.

Nouns which are formed either from an augmented verbal-§ 155. stem and retaining the affix, or through independent reduplication, do not so easily pass through the many stages of the simple stem, on account of the unwieldiness of their stem. The shortest form for substantives, in which the radical last but one has no vowel, and the form for the agent, which has  $\hat{\sigma}$  ( $\hat{a}$ ) after the first radical, are wholly wanting. The chief of them, therefore, are

1. Predicative words with reduplication of the second radical, which may be classed with the predicative words, \$ 149, and express properties and qualities, only more strongly. The stem with a serves not only as an adjective: 127 very trembling, ਸ਼ਤ sick, and the ancient name of God ਸਦਾ, lit. the mightiest, but must also by virtue of the active force of the a form an intensification of the idea of an agent and, \$ 151, and so serves to indicate inclination as well as manner of life or custom: סלח forgiving, by inclination and habit, סבר bearer, חבט butcher, יהין judge, חַלֵּם mariner, אַכָּר husbandman; this accordingly very strong â sometimes changes into ô: מוֹר hero, יפוֹר fault-finder. The stem with  $\hat{u}$  is passive: have bereaved, or expresses the prevailing inclination:  $|\eta j \eta | rich in mercy$ , merciful; but this  $\hat{u}$  is sometimes changed into ô: ילוד, as an independent adjective, born (Ger. geboren), sometimes into î: צריק prisoner, צריק righteous. The stem with the weaker half-passive  $\bar{e}$ , which is also echoed in the first syllable more strongly as i, marks especially states

of mental sufféring: נָאָה dumb, עוֵר blind, בָּהָה fainting, נָאָה proud, מַאָן averse.

Words like 기반 step, also 기반 , 기투자 vow, and before suffixes 기투했, both formed acc. § 153, arise in another way, and 미국 tunica, whose reduplication is intelligible from § 23 fin. and § 145.

- § 156. Abstract nouns arise from augmented verbal-stems
  - 1) in the shortest and simplest form from the Imperf. of each stem: but these are generally Infinitives merely, \$ 238, 2.

  - 3) by means of the same  $\hat{u}$  or  $\hat{o}$ , but pushed forward in a new way, so that in the last syllable also  $\hat{a}$  (from  $\hat{o}$ ) is either retained or takes a lower form after the long vowel: אָם אָּנֹיִלְ pit, wax, סוּנֵר prison, possession,  $\psi$ . 16. 5.

But very remarkable is it that the inserted unchangeable vowel of the abstract noun establishes often in the final syllable, so that, destroying the reduplication of the middle radical, it reduplicates the third instead: מַבְּלֵּוֹם adultery in the pl. from Pi-el אָבָּוֹן, and from adjectives of the stem בַּבְּלֵּוּ, \$ 155, בְּבָּלֵוֹ hump from בַּבּוֹ humpy, and even בּבּלוּ clear-sight from בַּבְּלֵוּ clear-sight from בַּבְּלֵוּ clear-sight from בַּבְּלֵוּ clear-sight from בַּבְּלֵוּ בּבּריים בּבּיבּים בּבּיבּים בּבּיבּים בּבּיבּים בּבּיבּים בּיבּים 
\$ 157. 2. Predicative words (adjectives) with a reduplication of the third radical scarcely lengthen the final vowel of the corresponding verbalstems \$ 120: אַרָלוֹי green, אָבְעִי quiet, אַבְּעִי weak, ψ. 6. 3; but longer with a preceding אַרְלוֹי wretched. From them are derived abstract nouns, as אַרְלוֹי (for אַבֵּי \$ 57) glow, אַבְּעִילוֹי redness, also as אַבְּעַרְּאַבּי λεύχωμα and other names of colours.

With reduplication of the last two radicals: אָרַלְּהַלְּהַ tortuosus in a physical אַרְהַלְּהַ perplexus in a mental sense; and to express broken, shaking sounds, playing, varying or imitating colours: אַנְצָּירָן fem. for שִׁצְינָהּ

trumpet, בְּבְרָבָּר reddish (röthlich). From them substantives: אָבְיִבְּיבּ contemptuous colluvies populi, בְּבָרָה fem. many-coloured spot — A noun from a quadriliteral stem: אַבְיבִיל depths.

### 3. Nouns with external augmentation.

### 1) By preformatives.

The nouns which are augmented by preformatives are always so far \$159. like those hitherto treated of, that they are formed immediately from verbal-stems or from simplified nouns. They originate in two ways: by far the most of them by prefixing letters from pronominal roots, which by virtue of their derivation indicate a person (who) of whom something is predicated, primarily, therefore, forming more definite predicative words, from which, however, (as \$163) by a change of meaning can be formed substantives also. To these the following three forms belong:

1. The form with prefixed m'- is one of the most com-§160. mon, and falls into two main divisions:

Primarily it allies itself with most of the participles of the augmented verbal-stems § 168, so that מֵקִים raising, literally means according to its derivation one who raises.

But then m' is employed perhaps more commonly to form what in stricter language may be called the thing-word (das Dingwort) as distinguished from the common substantive, that is, the name of a definite and often visible thing in an action. Hence this substantive denotes that through or with which something is done (the instrument), as אַרָּבָּע from אָרָבּע to open; or where it was done (the place of the action), as שַּבְּעָב lurking-place; or that which can be done, as אַרְבָּע booty, lit. what is taken, מִבְּרָבָּע what can be trodden underfoot. It is but rarely

that it denotes as a common substantive the occurrence of an action or the action itself, and in that way it becomes gradually able to form the simple Infinitive, \$ 239. And even whole sentences can be brought into the thought of such a substantive: אַר אַלְּיִלְּיִי לְּיִילִי לְּיִילִי לְּיִילִי לְּיִילִי לִּיִּין לִּיִּלְיִי לְּיִילִי לִּיִּין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לְּיִלְיִין לִייִּין לִיִּין לִייִּין לִייִּין לִייִּין לִייִּין לִייִּין לִייִּין לִייִין לִייִּין לְיִין לִייִּין לִייִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּיְיִין לְיִּיִין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּין לְיִיין לְיִיִּין לְיִיִּיִין לְיִיִּיִין לְיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְיִּיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִּין לְיִיִּיִין לְיִיִּיִּיִּין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לִייִּין לִייִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִיִּין לְיִיִּיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִיִּין לְּיִיִּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִייִין לְּיִין  לְּיִין לְּיִּין לְּיִּין לְּיִין לְּיִּין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִּין לְּיִין לְיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְייִין לְיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְייִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְיִייִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּייִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּייִין לְּיִין לְּיִין לְּייִין לְּייִּין לְּייִין לְּייִין לְּייִין לְּייִּין לְּייִּין לְּייִּין לְייִין לְּייִין לְּיין לְייִין לְּייִין לְּייִין לְּייִין לְּייִייִּין לְּייִיין לְ

Equally rare are derivations from simple nouns, like מַרְנְּלוֹת pl. fem. what is at one's feet (בָנֵל).

In the common form derived from the simple stem, this substantive passes through three stages, and accordingly of itself falls into three different stems: 1) the primary stem is that with accented a: מַלְּאָדְּ, changing into o: מַלְּאָדְּ, Lev. 15. 9; — 2) an a at the beginning with the following vowel lowered forms stronger and newer stems, especially for the instrument, and then often in the feminine form: מַלְּבֶּרָה vine-knife; מַלְּבֶּרָה statua; מַלְּבָּרָה place of assembly, rarely like מַלְבָּרָה altar; — 3) pure passive stems also are formed by means of û and the vowels into which it is changed in the last, and a (acc. § 131) in the first, syllable: מַלְבֵּרָה clothing (lit. what can be put on) in addition to מַלְבָּרָה לְבִּרָּה subject of song, i. e., ridicule, ปีค. 3. 63, besides the feminine is rare.

From מַאֲרֶב (מַאֲרֶב *food*, but also מָאוָן scale, from מָאָרָב (מַאָּרָב scale, from מָאָר), acc. \$ 37.

From פּ" : פּ"י : מִישֶׁר, מוֹקֶר ; מִישֶׁר, מוֹקֶר ; מִישֶׁר ; מִישֶׁר ; מִישֶׁר ; מִישֶׁר ; מוֹקָר ; מוֹקָר ; ment is stem 3; with amalgamation of the first radical, acc. § 117: מַבְּע camp, מַבְּע conscience, Ecc. 10. 20.

On the other hand, stems 1 and 2 are not distinguishable in the מְעָרָה, Aramaic from this מְעָרָה, fem. מְעָרָה hollow; stem 3 מְעָרָה darkness, מאָרָה or contracted מַנּה spot.

From אַשְי: stem ז מְמַבּר for מְמָבּר for מְמָבּר for מְמָבּר for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמָּב for מַמֶּב for מַמֶּב for מַמֶּב for מַמֶּב for a more abreviated מַעָּר, but stem 2 with the tone forward with unchangeable, therefore, further מַשְּׁב course; stem 3 מְעֵר perfection, מַעָּר for ruins.

From ל"ה and ע"ו also: מַוְנֵה provision from מָוֹה.

2. Prefixed t, in pronunciation and formation very similar § 161. to the m' of the last class of substantives, nevertheless forms usually only substantives with a simple stem, having a merely abstract meaning, and generally derived from Hif-il or Hithpael, whose prefixes are similar, or from other longer stems, and especially from weak roots: אַרְהָּה deep sleep from אַרְהָּה deep sleep from אַרְהָה deep sleep from אַרְהָה deep sleep from אַרְהָה לַּבְּרָה חַלְּיִה מֹיִלְה לַבְּרָה חַבְּיִלְה מֹיִלְה לִייִּה לִּבְּרָה חַבְּיִלְה מִּבְּרָה חַבְּיִלְה מִּבְּרָה חַבְּרָה מִּבְּרָה חַבְּרָה וּשִׁיעָה מִבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה וּשִׁיעָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה וּשִׁיעָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִּבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרִה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרָה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּר עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְה עִבְּרְיִב עִבְּרְיִב עִבְּרְיִב עִבְּרְיִב עִבְּרְיב עִבְּר עִבְּרְיב עִבְּר עִבְּרְיב עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּיב עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּרְיב עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּיב עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּר עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּר עִבְּיב עִבְּר עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבּי עִבְּיב עִבְיב עִבְיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְיב עִבְיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִבְּיב עִ

It is only in a secondary meaning that this form with simple stem can denote persons also, for instance, if they are looked upon more as mere objects of an action, אַלְיִיכּר sojourner and the later Aramaic בּלְטִירּר scholar.

Prefixed ' has become very rare: יְלֵילֵ disputer, the old proper-names § 162. יְעַקְּבֹּר, etc.; a substantive: מְיִבְּיִלְּבְּר, existence, acc. § 153 newly formed. The ' is, as § 191, softened from n: comp. the old proper-name בַּבְּּהָּלְּבִּיל.

In an entirely different manner from this (§ 159) can a noun be formed by a preformative: the internal building by means of reduplicating a radical § 155 can take an external direction, and leave behind a vowel merely: in this manner an adjective of more expressive predication is produced by an emphatically prefixed a, to which a second answers in the middle of the word, as אַרָּבוּ horrible, אַרָּאָר lasting, אָרָבּוּ fat, healthy, also הַבְּבּוּ palace lit. capacious. In Hebrew, however, words of this

form are rare. Through feminine transformation substantives arise from them, as Προκ night-watch φυλακή from a possible προκ watchful, poetic πημε announcement from πημ Pi-el to announce.

## 2. By afformatives.

- § 164. The afformatives, likewise derived from pronouns, serve to derive from existing nouns new ones, without altering the old noun, and, therefore, by a purely external addition. The ending
- S 163. 1.  $-\bar{a}n$ ,  $-\hat{o}n$  however is still undecided between the two modes of formation - internal and external. It derives adiectives from any substantive: קרם fore (eastern) from קרם the front (east), היכון middle and ודילון first, acc. \$ 108, from and נחשהן, וחשה נחשה and נחשהן metallic from fem. חבה metal, ואיז full of windings from עקלה or עקלה (acc. \$\$ 149. 166) a winding; and forms also adjectives even from roots: עליון viduus, עליון highest. — But it is also found as — ôn (Aram. -ân), properly distinguished by greater length, in order to derive on the other hand substantives from adjectives: widowhood from the above עורון, אלמן blindness with a as pretone from עור § 155, רעכון famine from בעב hunger; or yet mere frequently in order to derive substantives immediately from the simple stem, in which the vowels can be lengthened even in the middle of the root: וַכּרוֹן memorial, with a reduplication which disappears before suffixes with the tone, \$\$ 187, 214, פרוון leadership, destruction, i. e., hell, and sometimes the passive u in the first syllable יְּחְרוֹן table; words like יְחָרוֹן advantage, אַבְרָן or אַבָּרָן (yet without Dagesh lene § 48) destruction, are of later origin.

From "צ"ן rejoicing, לְצוֹן derision with a as pretone merely acc. \$ 108. I. — From הָלִין ,קְנָין לֹינוֹן (קַנְין ,קַנִין ,קַנין ,קַין ,קַנין ,קַין ,קיין nusual abreviations: נְשְׁרֶּהְ fingernail, fem. בְּשְׁרָהְ shame from. mas. אָעִיר רוב יויב. — For -n there is sometimes -m: עִירֹם, naked, root בְּשֶׁר, and also -in and el for -an: בַּרְשֶׁל axe, בַּרְשֶׁל fruitful field, ישָׁרָה mist, אַרָאָל hearth.

2. -î derives relative adjectives from any noun whatsoever, most naturally and frequently from proper-names, inasmuch

The i has often (as also in many other cases) a before it as its counterpoise, and instead of other usually unchangeable vowels: יָבֶוֹנְי from יְבָיִנְ the right (hand, etc). Sometimes it shortens also propernames somewhat: הוֹנְדָה and יְהוֹנְדְה Midianite, יְהוֹרָדְי from יְהוֹנְדְה yew from יְהוֹנְדָה.

Instead of - the harder Aramaic - ái, -ae, é, is found more rarely: רְּבָּרָ (name of a plant) § 189, בּּיִלֵּה cunning, דּוֹרַה sorrowful.

But neither by these endings § 163 sq. nor by internal building §§ 149, 155, is an adjective readily derived from every substantive without exception: on the contrary the Hebrew in this respect still retains much of its ancient simplicity, so that generally its substantives predominate by far, and from many of them, e. g., pop silver, pold, no such adjective as our silvern, golden, is formed. Or if an adjective of internal building § 149 exists, it is often nevertheless used only of men or God, as prop holy can never be said of things or brute creatures. See some important results therefrom §§ 209. 287.

The fem. of this last formation רְיִה or יוֹ forms sub- § 165. stantives or rather abstract nouns from any existing noun: בּּלִילְיָה sentence from בַּלִילְיָה judge, רְאשִׁיח beginning from בּלִילְיָה beginning from בּלִילִיה head.

But the ending n— more frequently changes, in consequence of the force of the passive vowel û in forming abstract nouns, into — ûth, and becomes in that way the last stem for substantives, displacing the existing internally formed stems, or strengthening them. Therefore 1) from adjectives, participles or longer words of a similar sense: קרוח פּרִרוח or separated, מַלְּאָרָה destruction, מַלְּאָרָה separation from part. Hif. מֵלְאָרָה cheerful, מֵלְאָרָה message from מֵלְאַרָּה \$ 160; —

2) from shorter substantives merely to strengthen them: אַבְּלְּהוּ strength with בַּמְלְכוּח , מֵבְלְּהוּ kingdom, and, Aramaic fashion, in the infinitives of the augmented verbal stems. — 3) also from nouns of the simple form: מֵבְלְּהוּ kingdom from מֵבְלְהוּת , and with simplification also: מַבְלְּהוּת בְּבַבּהוּת proud, מַבְלָּהוּת מַבְלַבּהוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלִּתוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלַבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִּבּוּת מַבְּלִּבּוּת מַבְּלִּבּוּת מַבְּלִיבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מִבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּלִבּוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מַבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבּיבּר מִבּרוּת מִבּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבְּבּרוּת מִבּבּר מִבּר מִבְּבּר מִבּיבּי מַבְּיּת מִבּיב מּבּיבּית מִבּיב מּבּר מִבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּר מּבּיב מִבְּיבּי מִבּיּת מִבְּיב מִבְּיּת מִבּיב מּבּיב מּבּי מִבּיב מּבּיּת מִבְּיב מִבְּיב מִבּיב מִבּיב מִבּיב מּבּיב מִבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מִבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיב מּבּיי מּבּיב מִבּיב מּבּיב מּבּים מִבּיב מִבּיב מִבְּיב מִּבְּיב מִּבְּי מִבְּיּב מִבּיב מִבּיב מִּבּי מִבּיב מִּבּים מִיבְּיל מִיבּים מִּבּים מִּבְּיב מִבּיב מִּבְּים מִּבְּים מִיבּים מִיבְּים מִּבְּים מִּבּים מִּיב מִיבְּים מִיבּים מּבּים מִיבּים מִיבְיים מִּבְּים

From א"ץ: ארות perversity with a as pretone; but ארות oracle from the root ארות and immediately from its infinitive \$ 238 with a stable first vowel; from the not סליה often with unchangeable â (ô) in the first syllable after the loss of the third radical: אַבָּרוּת , also אַבְּרוֹח, and also אַבְּרוֹח, דְּלִּוֹח בּיִר and immediately from its infinitive \$ 238 with a stable first vowel; from the loss of the third radical: בְּלוֹח weeping, אַלְּוֹח, also אָבְּרוֹח, and also אַבְּרוֹח בּיִלוּח is rarely altered to -ôth: אַבְּרוֹח wisdom, poetical; shortened by the falling off of the th: אַבּרוֹח בּבוֹא אַבּרוֹח בּבוֹר \$ 16 myriad, בּבּר. 16. 4.

The vowel-changes which these three endings cause, are on account of the similarity of the letters the same as those before the endings for gender and number § 185.

**\$** 166. 4. The simple feminine ending also serves very much acc. § 179 to derive abstract nouns from any stem with a personal meaning; as 1) from nouns with simple stem: הַבָּל foolishness from נבל fool, גולה robbery, lit. raptum besides which occurs and shorter the mas. בֹל in the same sense, בּל הַה birthright from one taken captive. — בולה one taken captive. 2) from adjectives with a reduplicated second radical: חשאה sin from עוַר sinner, אַנָּרָת blindness from עוָר with a change in the first vowel, by way of distinction from עורה the fem. adj., caeca. — 3) from passive participles: פָּבֶּבּה event from Nif-al, משה stretching out from Hof-al, root מָבֶלְקָה, נָטָה devastation from Pu-al; but the mas. as neuter in the same meaning is also possible: מעמר position, משה perversity Ez. 9. 9, הומם praise. — Even the simplest nouns become more abstract by the addition of the feminine ending; therefore, especially in half-passive ideas: ישְבֶּיה wisdom, עוב and אַנְבֶה strength, עוב and שְנֵבֶה help, שֹבְיָה אַנְבָּיה captivity; in the roots ל"ה then often changing into the stronger form \$ 165, as בְּכִיח weeping, אַנוּח suffering or misery.

### Diminutives

are expressed by broken, indistinct vowels u-ai, au and in its stead § 167,  $\delta$ , as if the broken indistinct sound imitated and embodied the idea: however they are only rare in Hebrew. The place of the vowel is in the middle of the word in אַרְלָּוֹלֵּ birdie, אַרְלֵּגְּ lapillus, אַרְלֵּגְ granule, before the plural ending acc. § 36 with a change into i (from i, ae) as בּיִרְיִּ little sun (a foreign ornament) from שֵׁשֶׁלֵּ sun Is. 3. 18, with a difference of dialect; or at the end, as -ûn, or rather -ôn (aun), often preceded by u: [] little Israel, [] in the meaning of apple of the eye, pupilla, lit. mannikin, [] in the Song of Songs little neck, pl. בּיִרִּעִיִּ vegetables, small herbs.

## 3. PARTICIPLES (AND INFINITIVES).

In the participle and the infinitive the noun is brought § 168. back again into the closest connexion with the verb, since they simply present the verb after the manner of a noun.

The participle does not present the two fundamental parts of a sentence, action and subject, in unity (as the verb does), but primarily only a subject, and yet the subject as that to which the action belongs (comp. § 160); and so far is more, or rather in one respect is more heavy than the verb. Since the idea of a subject of which something is predicated is the first idea of the participle, it gets its form from its noun, but its matter from any verbal stem. But it is like the infinitive wholly a noun in this that it has not even the slight commencement of distinction of tenses to which the verb has attained. In the use of the participle two distinctions must be observed:

1. It serves primarily, in accordance with its origin, merely for a short and comprehensive combination of a person and the finite verb: agens — qui agit, and therefore equals in sense a relative sentence, and can stand in every possible connexion: אוֹר a lover, (one who loves), אוֹר a lover, (one who loves), אוֹר a lover, (one who has fled, ווֹרְלְא אַח־רְבָּר וֹיִי he who fears

Jahve's word; some words with a passive meaning, as נּיְרָא feared, קּמְקּר, desired, can further have the same signification as fearful, desirable, tremendus, desiderabilis.

But the participle serves further simply to predicate that an action belongs to and remains with and in a subject: it connects itself then with the subject having entirely the meaning and government of a verb, and presents the action as lasting, as a state or condition, as אוֹכִי הֹלְהַ I am going, which in some connexions can mean an action close at hand merely: iturus sum; or duration during another action: they came up מלוט ישר and Lot was sitting, i. e. whilst Lot sat \$\$ 306, 341. Hence it takes its place with the perfect and imperfect, \$ 134, almost as a third temporal form; and becomes more independent whenever it expresses by means of the addition of the perf. הַיָה duration in the past (הַיָה לֹחָב he was writing, scribebat), and of the imperf. יהוה duration in the future (קהוה כהוב he will be writing, i. e., continue writing), whilst without either of these additions it denotes the simplest duration, i. e., the present. Yet these combinations and the use of the participle for the present merely, are but rare; but if הַהָּה is added, it suffices for several verbs when placed before the first, 1 Kings 5. 1.

# § 169. In reference to its form the participle can

- ו) separate itself as a noun in the simple form from the verb by merely strengthening its vowels. So Qal: act. בְּחַלּבּ, from יִשׁי: אַבּ \$ 151; pass. בְּחַלַּבְּ \$ 149, half-passive formed acc. \$ 149 rarely with o: אָבָי לַּבּלּהָם dreading, usually with ē: בְּרֵלֵּב approaching, piṇ getting strong, by the side of which the forms with ô, or ā remain for the adjectives אָבְּרֵב near, pị strong; the ē is sometimes acc. \$ 15 lengthened to â: אַבָּי gone forth, יִבִּילַה bearing, (burdened), הַבּילַה gone forth, יִבּילַה adding is explained by \$ 127. Also the part. of Nif. from יִבּילַר from the perf., from יִבּילַר however, as every noun, acc. \$ 149, with é: בַּנְלֵּה from זֹיִילָּה however, as every noun, acc. \$ 149, with é: בַּנְלֵה בּּיֹרַה אַבּילַר בּיִּילַר בּיִּילַר בּיִּילַר בּיִּילַר בּיִּילָר בּיִילָּר בּיִּילַר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילָּר בּיִילְּר בּיִילְּר בּיִילְּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִר בּיִילִּר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיילִר בּיִילִר בּיִילִר בּיילִר בּיִילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיִילִּר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּייל בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּיילִר בּייל בּיילִר בּייל בִּיל בּייל בִייל בּייל - 2) All the other verbal stems assume the external prefix 7p \$ 160, which is prefixed to the stem of the imperfect (since it corresponds to the personal prefixes of the imperfect \$ 191),

but in such a way that the strengthening of the vowel in the last syllable of Pu. and Hof. is still observable: בְּחָבֶּהְ Pu., בְּחָבֶהְ Pi. (also מְחָבּהַב (מְחָבּהַ for מְחָבָּהַב (מְחָבּהַב (מְחָב הַ הַּלְּרָ hiftp.; בְּחַבְּהַ Hif., but from "y and "y": and מְחָבָּהַב and בּחָב since in the part. ē as a somewhat longer pretone establishes itself, \$ 112. In Pu. sometimes without — מִבְּלַל בּיִר.

The treatment of the infinitive may be seen better subsequently, \$\$ 236-240.

## SECOND STAGE OF WORD-BUILDING:

FORMATION OF PERSON, GENDER AND NUMBER.

## First transformation of the stems.

The lively imagination visible in the oldest language loves to conceive apparently lifeless objects in accordance with its own nature, i-e.,
as living and therefore personal. But this very thing immediately gives
rise to these contrary facts, that those objects that are felt as less alive,
whether they exist in thought merely (nomina abstracta, collectiva), or
are conceived of as things merely (e.g., caput, cor, hepar, jecur, pectus,
even corpus as contrasted with animus, anima, pes, manus), seem as dead:
the true meaning of the neuter, which should rather be called the impersonal; whilst, on the other hand, invisible things which seem to show
a specially energetic force, e.g., powers of the mind, are conceived of
as having life. — But again in things that are personal the feminine is
distinguished from the masculine, which is earlier and primary; and this
still further in the case of lifeless objects, so that, e.g., a strong force
like storm is masc., a gentler like air is fem. — The Semitic, distinguishes
also the gender in the second person as well as in the third, even in the

verb. — Lastly, to these distinctions must be added that of number, i. e., either general, or singular, or plural: and since a whole so often falls into two halves and the one is completed by the other, there is formed in the more perfect language a dual, answering to the idea of a pair, as well as the general, singular, and plural.

Since all these distinctions, especially that of genders, go back into the remote period of the language, and yet various subtle ideas and nice meanings have sought expression by their means, there has arisen here a great multiplicity and to some extent an undeniable intersection of forms, and the whole matter has become more difficult to understand; comp. also § 267.

§ 172. When the Semitic expresses externally such differences, it avails itself continually of endings: the one exception to this rule § 191 (137) has its special cause. It had originally a neuter, as שַּׁ what?, in addition to שַׁ who?, § 182, proves, but in its present form has lost all feeling for a comprehensive external distinction of the neuter, and owing to the loss of this stone from the building great vacillation has been caused.

Still when the idea of a neuter is to be expressed, the masc. often suffices; but the fem., as the weaker, expresses more definitely what is less active, i. e., the neut. also: in the pronoun both masc. and fem. are used for the neut., in the pl. the fem. is more frequent, in the sg. both interchangeably: אוֹן fem. this, אוֹן masc. that, וֹבְּה fem. ea, מֹנִים in the adjective, on account of the greater possibility of ambiguity, the masc. is used as neuter only rarely and poetically, but much more frequently the fem. אוֹן שוֹנות magna; for the Verb see Syntax § 295.

- \$ 173.

  2. The mass. as the primary gender has no distinctive sign. When the fem. has an external distinction, -ath is appended as the original sign of the form: yet this th is very generally softened to a mere aspirate after the vowel ah, written 7, very rarely N \$ 16; whilst -ath, even when it is retained often loses its weak a before the hard th. Both endings are found in connexion with all words that receive this sign of gender, but with the following distinction:
  - 1) The stunted vowel-ending can be used only when the word stands alone in the sentence, without any closer con-

nexion with the following word: whilst, on the contrary, when the word flows rapidly into one that follows it, immediately the original consonantal ending returns, \$\$ 211, 248. Since the noun requires such a suppletion by a following word far oftener than the verb, the vowel ending is on that account, far more natural and more general in the verb than in the noun.

- 2) When the consonantal ending is affixed to a noun, it is preferred, in accordance with the fundamental law of nounbuilding \$ 119, to append it without the tone to a preceding vowel that has the tone; but this tendency is circumscribed by the general rules of the tone \$ 85, according to which instances such as מֵלְכֵּח are wholly unallowable; in a few instances only a preceding middle-syllable (\$ 27) surrenders its reduplication for that end: אשה for אשה woman; but the more changeable the preceding vowel is the more easily is th appended, and in the substantive still more than in the adjective or participle: מַמַח from שֹׁן acc. \$ 238 from root מַזָּ, הַחָּח, from original o or u קטרת acc. \$ 35, but from original e or i also é-e, גְבִיר from גְבִיר, because בְּרָחְ can arise from this acc. § 89: but that the toneless last syllable had always the tone originally appears from the absence of the pretone: עצרה like עצרה.
- 3) Further, the consonantal ending -ath, then shortened into -th acc. \$ 45, is often appended to the stems ending in a vowel: עָבְרִיּח or עִבְרִיּח from עָבְרִיּה \$ 164.

The Massora has sometimes forms like רַלְּחָ שְׁ. 74, 19, or rather on account of the status absolutus רְּלָנְעָ 60. 13; also רְּלָעָ, שְׁ. 132. 4 without pretone for רְּלַעָּ, quite Aramaic.

The -āh can be attached to a form that is already feminine, especially in poetry in the case of full-sounding and sonorous substantives, as אַרְעָּרְהְּיִי deliverance in addition to אַרְעָרִי with a toneless repetition; or it is appended also to substantives which are very near to the feminine class at least in meaning: מְּנִילָה death שָׁ. 116. 15, אַרָּ מִּנְיֹלָה sun poetic, in addition to בּיִרָּ חַבְּּיִים וּשִׁרְּ בּיִרְּ חַבְּּיִים וּשִׁרְ בּיִּרְ וּשִׁרְ בִּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בִּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בִּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בִּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִּרְ בְּיִרְ  בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִרְ בְּיִירְ בְיִייְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִייִי בְּיִייְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִייְיִייְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִירְ בְּיִייְי בְּיִייְ בְּיִייְ בְּיִייְ בְּייִייְ בְּיִייְייִי בְּיִייִייְ בְּייִייְייי

At times -ah is further shortened to -eh, as 기취자 funeral pile, beside 기취, root 기계 = 그런 to burn, 기가 3. per. fem. perf. Qal, Zach. 5. 4; and

thence the change from ah into f is not difficult and appears in very ancient pronouns, § 184. Comp. further § 176.

- § 176. Nevertheless not a few substantives, although they were felt by the language, either constantly or at least here and there, to be feminine, have always lacked any external distinction: of names of animated creatures אַ mother, שֹׁהַ pellex, אָהוּן ewe, אָהוּין she-ass; but further many names of objects conceived of merely in the imagination as animate and feminine, which may be divided into the following principal classes:
  - 1) Names for the *earth*, men being her children, for *country*, *town*, אָרֶץ; more rarely for objects related to these.
  - 2) Names of strong but unknown, obscure and mysterious powers: אָבּי soul, and, following this in the second member of a poetic verse, קבור, lit. honour, Gen. 49. 6; אוֹר wind, spirit, with the names of particular winds and points of the compass; אַי fire, sometimes אוֹר hight and related names; אַי cloud. The change of אַיִבָּי sun as fem. and יַבְרָּד moon as masc. goes still farther into ancient mythology.
  - 3) Names of many objects which serve man (as the wife the husband) with or in which he moves as master: of members of the body, especially those which most frequently serve as instruments: דְ and בַּלְּל הַשְׁל בְּלֵּל foot and following that בַּעָל step, עֲבֶּל finger, אַרְל arm, רְבֶּל tongue, and others; of clothing, implements, necessities, בַּעָל shoe, בַּעָל shoe, בַּעָל shoe, בַּעָל shoe, בַּעָל shoe, בַּעָל coup, בַּעַל coup, בַּעַל coup, בַּעַל and the like; of objects in space in which man moves, also of time, בַּבֶּל מער, בַּעַל coup, בַּעַל way, בַּעַל comp, בַּעַל wall, רוב בַּעַל cof, Gen. 6. 16, בַּעַל אַבָּן אַבָּן בּעַל way, בַעַע evening: lastly, names of stones and plants, בַּעָל אַבָּן etc. Several words of this kind, however, are used with some uncertainty or begin to be used sometimes as feminine: most of them are also of the simple form.

On the contrary, the whole family of names of rivers and mountains follow נָהָר river and mountain as masculine (even with the feminine ending 2. Kings 5, 12).

The purely abstract meaning of a word so rarely requires a feminine conception (500 toil fem. Ecc. 10 15 N as compulsion, compulsory

service Dan. 8. 12), that a word of this kind, e. g., an infinitive, notwith-standing the feminine ending, sometimes is treated as masc. or neuter: Prov. 16. 16; 12. 25; Lev. 22. 9; Gen. 15. 17. Shortened feminines in  $\Pi^-$  especially begin to turn masculine, as if they were quite simple words, as  $\Pi^{\text{MP}}$  bow,  $\Pi^{\text{NN}}$  sign, § 186.

Names of limbs, when transferred to inanimate objects or imitations of art, become through addition of the feminine ending fully feminine the more readily, since the feminine ending, acc. § 179, expressly serves to form abstracts: יוֹבָּלְ hip, אַבְּיִלְים backside, e. g., of a building; in the pl. יוֹבָּלְּ steps of a living being, אַבְּיִלְים feet, e. g. of the ark. Similarly אַבּינוֹם suckling, חוֹבֵין sprout of plants.

The external feminine sign is necessary only in connexion \$ 175. with all predicating words when they are connected with feminine substantives: עיר גָּרֹלָה loving mother, עיר גָּרֹלָה great city, or are in place of them: נַסה fugiens masc., fugiens fem., עברי Hebrew, עבריה Hebrewess, and therefore always in the verb. If the same name denotes living creatures of different sexes, the external distinction often appears, as עלמה juvencus, עלמה juvenca, yet in many names this distinction came to be observed only by slow degrees, as נער in the older language means both boy and girl, and it is only by degrees that נערה makes its appearance. Several names of animals distinguish, although constantly without the feminine ending, the feminine at least in construction if the sense commends the distinction, as ממלים camels in general is masc. Gen. 24. 63, but in the connexion sucking camels, 32. 16, is construed as fem.; not a few do not distinguish the gender even in construction, whether the usage of the language has conceived the entire class of animals as feminine, as אַפּרָהָע frog, or has held fast to the primary gender, as רֹב שׁכוּל, ursa orba, אלוף bos as fem. ל. 144. 14.

The feminine form is used as it were in a higher or more spiritual sense, 1) for abstract words, § 166; and thence for the purpose of adding to the name of a person the further idea of honour or of office, as TINF fathers § 177, TINF the preacher, if indeed the last word is always construed as masc., since in such words the feminine ending has no influence upon their construction. — 2) It can also denote single, individual, objects as those that are the weaker, and in that way forms individual names § 176.

3. In reference to number there is

- S 176.
- 1) between the strict sing. and the plur. properly the idea of mere material (or of an indefinite multitude) or of an inde-

termined generality; a number therefore which might be called generalis. Since the names of many objects denote primarily multitude, in Semitic a more definite word for what is single or the part of an undefined whole, i. e. a more rigid sing., can be formed by the feminine ending  $\dot{a}$ , which in this particular case is most easily diminished to é; such words to a certain extent are still used in Hebrew in both forms, but only occasionally, and are not easily recognisable, especially if this ending has already coalesced with the usual feminine ending.\* So אני ship in general, therefore meaning also fleet, מניה a ship, with the article האניה the individual ship; שוניה fire, א a fire, hence especially altar fire, אריה one lion with ארי as well; even with a toneless ending מאומה something, lit. a little spot \$ 104, שׁבְעַנַה a seven Job 42. 13. In Hebrew in most cases this word for the individual only has been retained along with the word having the plural ending \$ בוקה: אַנַה year, לְבֵנָה word, לְבֵנָה brick, and in many names of animals and plants, as יונה dove, בְּיצָה ant, בּיצָה egg, הַשְּׁהָה or פִּשְׁהָה or flax, האנה fig, חטה wheat, האנה ear of corn.

Several words as denoting plurality (collectiva) allow of no inflection: אַרָּם man, in general or indefinitely, has no plural form; likewise בָּקְר oxen, אַצּא small cattle, sheep or goats; and and mid designate an individual, a head of oxen and small cattle. Nevertheless many words of this kind are able to form a plural: אַצָּ wood, שַּבָּים pieces of wood, בַּיִם drops of blood, i. e., shed blood, murder; pure abstract nouns also, as righteousnesses, i. e. manifestations of righteousness in numberless particulars.

2) The ending for the plur is commonly of, very rarely more Aramaic .

\$ 177. But originally -âm rather (comp. בוֹ people, multitude, whence the ending probably derived); and also -ôm, ûm, -ûn, \$\$ 184, 191. The ending -îm in the noun is very rarely shortened to -î, as עוֹ peoples, ψ 144. 2, comp. 18. 44; לאף. 3. 14.

Hence the ending for the fem. plur. of the usual noun:

<sup>\*)</sup> as also in Arabic, but not in Aramaean.

That is from this original  $-\delta m$  or  $-\delta n$ , properly  $-\delta neth$  or  $\delta na$ : of the latter there are traces in the pronoun and the verb; the former has become in the Hebrew noun  $\delta th = \delta th$ .

Those substantives which, acc. \$ 174, in the sing. are feminine though they have no ending, retain in the plur. the primary ending in some cases: מַלְנִשִּׁים concubines (שַּׁרִים women \$ 186), אַבְנִים cities, אַבְנִים stones; but more frequently they assume the more definite ending: אַבְנִים souters, אַבְנִים she-asses, אַבְנִים countries, אַבְנִים souls, אַבְנִים spirits, אַבְנִים fingers, etc.; but several are variable and uncertain or begin slowly to assume the feminine ending, as אַבְנִים cothes only ψ. 45. 9 as well as

Many substantives which in the sing. have very rarely or never a feminine meaning, or which may possibly have lost their feminine meaning and ending, present the feminine ending in the plur., but are not construed correspondingly, as לֵבוֹח the plur., but are not construed correspondingly, as לֵבוֹח heart שִׁרְמוֹח, הַלְמוֹח palace שִׁרְמוֹח foundations, שִׁרְמוֹח palace מַבְּרְמוֹח also a few words of purely abstract meaning as יְבְּרֹח מִי מִינְנוֹח transgression וַבְּרֹח יִבְּרֹמוֹח בּרְנוֹח.

Of the names for individuals of a class \$ 176 the majority have on the contrary the primary ending and as it were intentionally, but are usually considered as feminine in meaning: שַׁלִייִ vears, שִׁלִייִם words, הַאָּנִים figs, figs, bees, פֿבְרִים altar-fires; a few have the more definite ending and nevertheless have no longer a feminine force: מוֹלוֹיוֹ nights, אַנְיוֹים lions.

The ending -\(\partial th\) is therefore often only the stronger one, or mostly the modern one: it is therefore allowable with substantives from \(\textit{n}\) as a support of the last weak radical, if they have at the same time the further idea of honour, acc. \(\mathbf{S}\) 175, of which class \(\textit{N}\) father \(\textit{N}\) \(\textit{N}\), always construed as a masc., is an example in Hebrew.

Many objects to which modern languages give names in \$178. the sing., the Hebrew conceives in their original manifoldness or endless divisibility, and therefore gives them names in the plur.: מָּנִים heaven and other names of regions, also שַּנָּיָם face, lit. the fore-parts; מְנִים water, בַּוֹמִים viscera; אַהָּלִים aloes as an article of commerce.

The antique poetic word Dinn people, which has been retained accidentally in the plural only, is not of this class.

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That the pl. at a very remote period carried in it also the idea of extension, honour and glory, appears from אַלוֹים and plur. in certain reliques of the old language. Similarly אַלוֹּים, like penates, and אַלוֹים food were formed as plur.; and if the former is retained in the plur. on account of its heathenish sense, the latter is retained, from old and sacred custom, in the plur. even when it denotes the true God, since it is later poets who introduce the sing. אַלוֹים as a new form. But the plural ending in such words simply adds a secondary idea, and so much so that they are always construed in the sentence as sing., if no special reasons, e. g., a heathenish sense in the name of God, cause the plural meaning to appear fully and prominently.

A really new plural can not be formed by a new ending from such words, and can therefore be known only from the connexion; so that בּוֹנִים stands for faces also, and בַּוֹנִים for gods also.

\$ 179. The plur. can also express an idea drawn from many single phenomena or actions, i. e., an abstractum; as אַהְנִים amores, "loves", Prov. 7. 18, עַּוְלֵּוֹת deliciae, מַעַרְבָּּיִם pleasure, midea drawn from many single phenomena or actions, i. e., an abstractum; as amores, "loves", Prov. 7. 18, עַּוְלֵּוֹת deliciae, עַּוְלֵּלְוֹת pleasure, pleasure, grant

But commonly the simple fem. sing. serves more for this meaning \$\$ 166, 172; sometimes both forms are used interchangeably: אַמָנִים faithfulness interchanges with אַמָנִים i. e., acc. \$\$ 33, 79 properly אַמִּנְיָה or אַמִּינָה Prov. 13. 17; 14. 5, comp. v. 25, אַמָּיִּה life in some poets changes to חַיָּה. But later the fem. sing. became the proper form for generic ideas (collectiva), as אַרְהָה servants (the latin familia), אַרְהָה lit. that which travels, i. e., caravan, and also דְּבָּה fish (coll.) from בּ fish; and in the construction of a sentence the predicate to a plural object, when it is the name of inanimate things or beasts, may be in the fem. sing., \$ 317.

\$ 180. 3) The Dual is a modification of the plural and final distinction: it is formed from the plur. ending -tm by the creation of a double letter, which represents really the idea of duplication: -dim. It denotes double limbs, or similar things consisting of two halves: יוֹבָל both hands, בַּלְלִים both feet, שֹׁבָּלִים both feet, בַּלְלִים both feet, בּלִים בּליים בּלִים בּלִים בּלִים בּלִים בּלִים בּלִים בּלִים בּליים בּ

teeth, סאונים bilances; but in these nouns has so far displaced the plur. that, e. g. שׁבְּעָה עִינִים seven eyes, may be said. Otherwise it is but rarely met with, as אַבּיבים biduum, דַּבְיבִים two ways, poetical, and in the numerals, \$ 267. It is wholly wanting in the pronoun and the verb. — The dual ending is usually appended to the unaltered sing. even when it has the feminine ending, as בּוֹשְׁבִים double-chains (on both feet) from בְּבִּים metal; comp. further \$ 185 sq. Its gender follows that of the sing.

But in particular this whole formation (§ 171) presents §181. great peculiarity

### 1. IN THE PRONOUNS.

- 1. Without any further distinction there are of these those which must be prefixed to other words, viz.,
- ו) the article הַ, comp. § 103. It is derived probably from הַל, but the b is constantly assimilated: שָּׁבְּשׁׁהַ the sun, שַּׁבְּיבָּשׁׁהַ the seeker, § 83, הַּהְּרָם acc. § 70, הַּהְּי the mother. Since a noun with the article is more complete and self-contained, the vowel with the accent after the article is lengthened in some short words, if it already has in addition an inclination to extension: הָּרָה the mountain from הַּרָּה from שַׁבְּיּבָּים from שַׁבְּיבָּרָף. § 149; אַבִּיךְ from אַבְיּרָף.
- 2) The corresponding relative pronoun, standing before a whole sentence, אשׁלה.

This word is further shortened to  $\nabla V$  in certain writings, as V V who to him, V V V who God. V V V V that I arose, or with the vowel lengthened before the weak V : V V V Judg. 6. 17, and, on the contrary when the accents are favorable, merely  $\nabla V \cdot \text{Ecc. 2. 22.}$  Also  $\nabla V \cdot V \cdot V$  are used as relatives, but rarely and only in poetry.

The interrogative pronoun מי who? אָם what? distinguish,§ 182. acc. \$ 172, only between person and thing in general, without any nicer distinction of gender or number: such cases as מי ואח is this (fem. woman, e. g.)? איל שיל who are these (plur.)? are therefore to be met with.

is shortened when in very close conjunction with the following word *i. e.*, properly only when followed by *Maqqef*, \$ 97 (sometimes omitted in the present text), by speaking it together with the following word and reduplication (as far as this is possible) of the first letter of

the latter, as מְהֹדְּהָלֵּי , מְהֹדְהוֹא, מָהְרַבְּיִּע acc. \$ 70, and מְהַרְּהָרָהִי acc. \$ 69; when otherwise it is shortened to מָה אָהְרָהִי acc before weak gutturals; and remains unabbreviated only in pause.

גווא (very rarely and in poetry או) this (masc.) (Germ. der) forms as fem. אוֹן (for אַרְּאָּרְיִּא from the original אַנְּיִּא, rarely with the הוּ dropped: הוֹ or זוּ. For the plur. another root is used: אַבֶּייִּג shortened from אַבְּיִּיּיִּג — If this pronoun is connected with a substantive made definite by the article or by its own meaning, the reduplicated pronoun acquires the force of our more definite this (Germ. dieser), as אַבְּיִּבְּיִינְּיִי this Moses (spoken contemptuously); and in this connexion it can be further shortened to הַּאַבְּיִּבְּיִיבְּיִי

On the other hand, the strong combination דָּלְּיֵה that yonder (Germ. jener da), also shortened into לְּבָּה, points to what is distant; rarely הַּבְּּוֹן There is no plural of this form. For this purpose the combination of the הוא, § 184, with the article, and a definite substantive, mostly indeed in the sing., is more generally applied: הַּבְּּמִים הָּהָה that day, plur. הַּבְּמִים הָּהָה those days.

חוֹ, in this its simple form means also here, and is governed as dependent here by an other word, as חוֹם from here, חוֹב וֹס look here, behold; also the combination וְה שְׁנְעִים שְׁנָה this or these 70 years should be noticed in this place.

When the interrogative אָי, \$ 104, precedes, the pronoun acquires the meaning of qualis? ποῖος? welcher? comp. \$ 326.

\$184. 3. The personal pronouns stand the highest of all pronouns as to meaning and are the most complete as to form. They distinguish persons in accordance with the purely personal consciousness of J and thou in contrast with the distant he; and amongst these again the higher, those of the first and second person, possess the full force of substantives or propernames. They are, when they stand alone (are not appended, \$247—61), as follows:

Sing.	PLUR.
$3$ per. $\left\{ egin{array}{ll} \mathrm{m.} & \mathit{hi} \mathrm{n.} \\ \mathrm{f.} & \mathit{f.} \end{array} \right.$ she	or הַּםְּה or הַּמָּה or הַנְּה they
2 per. { m. הְּהָּד thou f. הְאַ thou	אַהָּם ve אַהָּם <i>ye</i>
ו per. אֵנְלי or אָנֹלָי J.	עָרָנוּ or אַנְחָנ <i>וּ we.</i>

According to a more ancient style of writing Nin is found for the fem. Nin, without any distinction of gender. In the Massora it is pointed nin, acc. § 20, as Q'ri perpanum.

in a greater  $\overrightarrow{AB}$ . — The vowel  $\widehat{\epsilon}$  of the fem. (from  $\widehat{\epsilon}$ , a,  $\widehat{\epsilon}$  173) has in the second and third per. displaced the vowel of the masc: nevertheless has itself become inaudible in the second per., although in imitation of the Aramaic it may still be written  $\widehat{AB}$  but that instead of  $\widehat{AB}$  was spoken, is shown by the suffixes,  $\widehat{\epsilon}$  247.

becomes in pause אָנֹבֶי similarly אָנָבְי, acc. § 92.

A trace of the origin of hēm, attém from hūmu, attûm appears likewise in more advanced forms \$ 248; and that the ending of the fem. pl. in a vowel is the more original one, follows from \$ 177. Still in the plural the primary gender is often used for the fem. both when the pronoun stands alone and when it is affixed to other words.

# 2. IN THE NOUN-STEMS.

The person-endings have always the form described in § 185. \$\$ 173, 177, but as accented vowel-endings affecting the previous pronunciation of the word (that is, if the word has no unchangeable vowels, as  $\hat{u}$  in  $\hat{u}$ , § 153, or  $\hat{u}$ , § 149,  $\hat{u}$  in  $\hat{u}$ , § 149) they produce to a certain extent a great change: yet in many respects the other endings differ from the lightest of them, that of the fem. sing., whilst the dual-ending, § 180, is generally appended just as the plural-ending, but sometimes, as being somewhat stronger, it shortens the previous vowel still more. There is then a further distinction, whether the nounstem ends, as usually is the case, in a consonant or in a vowel.

1. The simple nouns of the first form, מֶּמֶר, מֶּמֶר, מְמֶּה, lose§186. their after-sounding vowel before all affixes, and assume their original form

- ו) before the  $-\bar{a}$  of the fem. sing. מַלְּכָּה, מָחְרָה, מָחְרָה, but ז often takes the place of a, as פַּבְשָׁה and כָּבִשׁה from כַּבִשׁ from lamb. — From ליה: רְעְיָה, חֶרְוָה, pride from נָּהָ, הָאָיָה, גָּאָיָה, גָּאָיָה, מָרְיָה, מְרָנָה, מְרָנָה, לואה from שואה acc. § 72; but certain words leave the î unchanged, especially such as גְּרָיָה kid גָּרִי, or ה is appended directly to the vowel-ending, as רעות friend fem., the masc. of which אָד, acc. § 115. 1, has lost the third radical, שבית, But frequently the form loses the third radical, \$ 115, so that a pretone supplies its place: שָׁנָה year, שֹׁנָה tip, or, acc. § 115. 1, with e as pretone: חַמָּה, הָמָה On the other hand, many, acc. § 173, having the ending -t are further shortened to קרה aty, elsewhere קרה, קריה door, אות sign, contracted from אָּהָ, root אָמָה trough; accordingly בַּח daughter arose from צירה : ע"ו son, acc. § 79. — From צירה from צירה, but עולה forms עולה, איולה with a new affix, \$ 173. The ô is shortened, acc. § 119, in מְלֵב shame, מְלֵב bow, when the ŏ is still farther shortened into a, חַחַ rest, חַחַשְּׁ pit, with a for o on account of the guttural. - From ע"ע: here and there changing into מָרָה, מְרָה, rarely like מָלָה pitch from וַפָּה pitch from וַפָּה.
- 2) Before the -im and-ôth of the plur. they assume, acc \$ 87, the a of the pretone, so that even the o of the first radical mostly disappears: מָּלְכִים, מַלְכִים, מְלָכִים, וֹמְלָכִים, from בְּלָבִים, nevertheless the o maintains its place as a rapid vowel in the secondary or counter-tone, \$ 88, in שֵׁלֶשׁ shórāshîm from שׁרְשׁ root before r, and in קְּלָשִׁים holy things with q, yet after the article and generally before suffixes only the most rapid vowel (Chatef-Qamess) remains: הַּלְּבְּשִׁים הַא הַלְּיִשׁים הַא הַלְּיִשׁים הַא הַלְּיִשׁים הַא הַלְּיִשׁים הַא הַלִּישׁים הַא אַרָּחוֹח, אָרָחוֹח הַאַּבְּישׁים הַא אַרְּחוֹח הָא יִבְּישׁים הַא without any internal change.

From אָרִים אָרָים, מוּר אָרִים, also צְּבָּאִים, acc. § 74, from אָרִים. From אָרִים, more abbreviated forms retain the n before the ending: הַּלְּחוֹח, הְּלְחוֹח שִׁפְּחֹח, אוֹחוֹח, הְלְחוֹח from חֲנִיח spear. From sings, which have wholly lost their third radical: מְנִים kinds from חֲנִים men, existing in the plur. only; with pretone שֵׁמוֹח names, בְּנִים sons, הֹלָי daughters; similarly בַּנִים vasa, the sing. of which is fuller בָּנִים vasa, the sing.

From שוּק, הְּיִשִּׁים : שִּׁיּק, הְּיִשִּׁים , but in many without any change in the stem רָחוֹת, וְיָחִים. From בַּיִח house plur.

לְּהְיּם bottim, acc. § 38 for bothim, since in these stems au and ai interchange; from ערים (originally ערים) plur. איי plur. איי with a for â; in יְמִים from יִמִים day, however, the a has become merely a pretone: — From יִמִים (st. c. חַקָּקִים (st. c. חַקָּקִים (אַבּיִר) אָיִי אָיי אָי אָרָיִים (st. c. עַמְמִים הּ \$ 212) from אִילָּיים, yet mostly with one עַמִים מּ for אָלָיִים — From אִילִּיי אַרָּיִים מּ still exists; the shortened בַּיִּיִים has become general for "women."

4) The ending of the dual is appended to this plural from: לְּדֶנְיִם, but also often to the sing. without a of the pretone מְמֵיִם ;מָרְעִּיִם as biduum is also formed afresh.

From words like שְלֵּוִים, \$ 147, plur. שָׁלָּוִים; but also הָּדַסִּים, acc. \$ 23 ad fin., from הָּדֶם myrtle, מַעָּטִים few.

2. The nouns with accented final syllable the first of which \$ 187. has merely a pretonic vowel, i. e. the simple ones of the second form, \$ 149, and some others from weak roots, lose this pretonic vowel before the new accented final syllable, but retain the other: מְמַרָּיִם fem. מְמַרֵּי, מְמֵרֵי, מְמֵרֵי, acc. \$ 160 plur. מְמַרִּים, some with î lower it to ê before the accented affix, acc. \$ 89. 1, מַבְּרִים, מְבִּרִים, כֹּלִימָה, thers with ô lower it to û: מְבִּרִים, יִמְבִּרִים, מְבִּרִים, מְבִּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמָבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְּמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, from זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְּיִבְּרִים, זְּבְּיבְיִים, זְּמַבְּרָים, זְמַבְּרִים, זְּבְּיִילְים, זְּבְּיִבְּיִים, זְּבְּיבְּיִים, זְבְּיבְּיִים, זְּבְּיבְּיִים, זְּבְּיבְּיִים, זְבְּיבְּיִים, זְבְּיבְּיִבְּים, זְבְּיבְּיִים, זְבּיבְּיים, זְבְּיבְיִּים, זְבְיבִּילְים, זְבְיבִּילְים, זְבְיבְּיִים, זְבְיּיִבְּיִים, זְבְיבִּילְים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבְיבְיִים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבִּילְים, זְבְיבִּילְים, זְבְיבְּיִים, זְבְיבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְּיִים, זְבְיבְיִּים, זְבְיבְיבְיִים, זְבְיבְּיִּים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְיּיִים, זְבְיבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְיּים, זְבְיבְּיִּים, זְבְיבְּיִּים, זְבְיבְּיִים, זְב

The ה־ is only rarely appended to those end-syllables the vowels of which are either unchangeable or at least greatly lengthened, and only in the case of substantives: thened, and only in the case of substantives: אַבֶּרֶח; לַּבֶּרֶח ; עַבֶּרֶח ; עַבְּרָח ; עַבְרָח ; עַבְּרָח ; עַבְרָח ; עַבְּרָח ; עַבְּרָח ; עַבְּרְח ; עַבְּרְח ; עַבְּרְח ; עַבְּרְח יִבְּרָח ; עַבְּרְח יִבְּרָח ; עַבְּרְחָר ; עַבְּרְחָר ; עַבְּרְחָר יִבְּרְח ; עַבְּרְתְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְּרְת יִבְּרְתְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְּרְתְיְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְיְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְיִבְיּרְתְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְיִבְיְרְתְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְיְיִבְיּרְתְיִים ; עַבְּרְתְיִבְיּרְת יְבְיּרְת יְבְיּרְת יִבְיּרְתְיִים ; עַבְיּרְיִבְיּרְת יְבְיּרְת יְבְיּרְת יְבְיּרְתְיִים ; עְבִירְיִבְיּרְתְיִיבְיְיְיִיבְיְיִים יְבְירְיִים יְבְיִיבְיְיִים יְיִיבְיְיִים י

Yet the pretonic vowel is retained in some stronger forms, §. 160, from אָשֶׁע, as אָבָּים shield יַבְּיבִּים; further, sometimes before a guttural, before which, however, ā before all affixes often changes to á, § 63, as אַבְּעִים other fem. בְּרִיחַים fugitive בּרִיחַים On the contrary, the â remains in שַׁבְּעִים veek, because the stem belongs to the form § 252, only Dan. 9. 25 sq.) and בּרִישִׁי is found before the dualending only.

ending only.

From אלה the fem. of the stem בְּחָבֶה is formed-as מְצוֹח contr. from מְצָּח middle, חוֹם sister; of abstracta with Aramaic form, מָנָח מְנָח plur. חוֹם מִנְיוֹם with unchangeable a. The form אַלָה מָנָח plur.

השט is more genuinely Hebrew, where the a often becomes unchangeable before additional affixes. — From אָּטָּא maid אוֹם, since, acc. § 109, a third radical is replaced by the א.

The few stems which have elsewhere a pretonic vowel lose it likewise: וְּכְרֹנִים from וְכְּרוֹן, \$ וּפֹּגוּח, with Dag. dirimens, אָלְבִּישׁים plur. חַלְּבִישִׁים plur. חַלְבִישִׁים plur. מָלָבִישׁים 158, plur.

\$188. 3. If the accented final syllable is preceded by one or more syllables that admit of no further shortening, so that the voice has thereby a firm support at the beginning of the word, the ē, which, acc. \$ 108. I, is in such a position very weak, long only through the tone, then disappears before the new accented end-syllable: מַבְּבָּה, הִבְּבָּך בָּרָה, הִבְּבַּך בָּרָה, הַבְּבַּר בָּרָה, וֹנִבְּבָּר בָּרָה, וֹנִבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וֹנִבְּבָּר בָּרָה, וֹנִבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְבָּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה, וְנַבְּבָּר בַּרָה בְּבִּר בְּבָּר בְּבָּרָה וְנִבְּבָּר בְּבָּרָה וְנִבְּבָּר בְּבָּרָה וְנִבְּבָּר בְּבָּרָה וְנִבְבָּר בְּבְּרָה וְנִבְבָּר בְּבְּרָה וְנִבְבָּר בְּבְּר בְּבָּר בְּבָּר בְּבָּר בְּבָּר בְּבְּר בְּבְּר בְבַּר בְבַּרָה וְנִבְבָּר בְבַּבְר בְבַּרְה וְנִבְבָּר בְבַּבְר בְבַּרְה וְנִבְבָּר בְבַּבְר בְּבְּבְר בְּבְּר בְבַּרְה וְנִבְבְּר בְבְּבְי בְּבְּל בְּבְּר בְבַּרְה וְבִיּבְי בְּבְיִבְיל בְּבָּבְי בְּיִבְיל בְּבָּבְים בְּיִבּל בְּבָּבְיל בְּבָּל בְּיִל בְּבָּר בְּבָּר בְבַּרְה בְּבְּר בְבַּרְה בְּבְּר בְבַּבְר בְבַּבְר בְבְבְיל בְּבְּבְר בְבְּרָה בְבְּבְר בְבְּרָה בְּבְרָם בְּיִבְיל בְּבְּל בְּבְר בְבְּבְר בְּבְרָם בְּיִבְיל בְּבְרָם בְּיִבְיל בְּבְבִים בְּבִיל בְּבְיִב בְּבְיִב בְּבִיל בְּבָּר בְּבָּר בְּבְּר בְּבְּר בְבְּבְיּים בְּבְיּבִיל בְּבָּב בְּבִיל בְּבְּבִים בְּבִיל בְּבְּבִים בְּבִיל בְּבָּר בְבָּב בּיִבּיל בְּבָּב בְּבִיל בְּבְים בְּבִיל בְּבָּב בְּבִּיל בְּבָּב בְּבִים בְּבִיל בְּבָּב בְבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבָּב בְּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבָּב בּבְיב בּבְבּים בּבִיל בְּבִיל בְּבָּב בּבְיב בּבְבִ

The no of the fem. is, acc. § 137, very frequent in the stems in  $\bar{e}$ , in those in  $\bar{a}$  and  $\bar{o}$  less frequent, and is sometimes found in those in  $\hat{u}$  and  $\hat{i}$ : שַׁלְטֵח mandatrix, from אַלִיט מּלָּטָח as well as אַשׁמְרָה night-watch, and in the part. Hif. מַשֶּׁנָח, root גשׁג, Lev. 14. 21; from ל"א acc. \$\$ 62. 73. מצאח or המאח part. Qal, נפלאח part. Nif.; from מְשַׁרֵח: ל"ח from the part. Pi. for הַרָּחַח, הַנֶּחָם from part. Hof., acc. § 81. When  $\alpha$  and o are thus greatly shortened, they do not often appear again in the plur. of substantives: אָר מְנוֹח אַר from מַחְלְקוֹח, אַרְלוֹנָח from מָחְלְקוֹח, אַרְלוֹנָח from מָחְלְקוֹח, אַרְלוֹנָח from מָחְלְקוֹח, עפרים and צפרים with the most rapid o from צפרים ear of corn, צפור or a possible, acc. § 176, סוב bird; on the other hand, û and î make themselves heard again: מיניקוח from מינקח nurse. — The  $\bar{e}$ in forms like מכחב, \$ 160, is very changeable, so that it very constantly becomes  $\dot{e} = a$  before the  $n^-$ , acc. §§ 33. 32. and this affects also the a of the first syllable, acc. § 108: hence from מַסְנֵּר clasp, מולנות fork in the fem. מולנות in the plur. מולנות, comp. \$\$ 212. 3, 213.

§189. As to the stems which have a vowel as their last radical

- ו) those of the simplest form אָקָדָּי, אָדָרָ constantly condense the vowel wholly into the half-vowel, since they have the stem-vowel upon the first radical alone, \$ 146; even stems which have an unchangeable vowel before always do this: פּוֹיִם gô-jim (peoples, poetic) from אָנָי 146, דוֹיִ 146, דוֹיִ 146, But
- 3) The ending הַ (-é) of the ל"ל disappears altogether before these vowels, acc. § 115. וֹנָפָּה, יָפָּה, יָפָּה; similarly sometimes from יְפָּה, וֹנָפָּה, יַפָּה, וֹנָפָּה, יַפָּה; similarly sometimes from ל"ל plur. from part. Nif., almost as if it were יִנְמְצִּים as third radical appears again but rarely, and more in poetry, and then withstands change and so much the more: פַּרְיָּה the fruitful one, from עַּמְיָה, פַּּרָה from the part. אַכָּה עַּמָה רבּה עִּמָה, acc. § לאַנָה פָּרָה מּבָּרָה מִבְּרָה מִבּרָה, acc. § 44. But in the very old plural forms שַּמִים מוֹבּרּ מוֹנִים heaven is a trace of the mingling of the i of the plur. with the original ending ai.

The names of individuals of a class, \$ 176 ending in הַ likewise lose the final vowel, as well as any other forms having this ending: רַהָּטִים, צָּאָלִים, בָּטִינִם פְּשָׁהָּה from הַשְּׁהָה or פַּשְׁהָה.

From words like דּוֹרֵי, \$ 164, plur. דּוֹרָאים acc. \$ 55 with unchangeable đ.

## 3. WITH THE VERB,

as constantly presenting an action and one of the three per-§ 190. sons in conjunction, are closely amalgamated even the pronouns of the 2 and the 1 person, § 184, whilst for indicating the gen-

der and number of the third person at least, the endings already explained are sufficient.

.The personal signs accordingly take the following forms:

1. In the *perfect* in the *third* as the primary person the masc. sing. remains without any personal sign; the fem. is distinguished, acc. § 173, by 7; instead of which the harder 7— with a strong final radical is very seldom, but with a weak one very frequent, \$19.4. -û is the sign for the plur., in which no fem. is distinguished; the fuller ending -ûn is scarcely found at all (Deut. 8.3, 16).

The second person masc. sing. תְּ—, without the tone, therefore less frequently written תְּה; fem. תְּ—, Aramaic תְּ—; plur. masc. מַם. always with the tone; fem. תְּבָה likewise, rarely תַּבָּה.

The first person sing. יה without the tone, rarely written n— or even n— ψ 16. 2 (the n probably for ס from אָנֹבִי, comp. \$\$. 47, 247); pl. טֹן without tone.

\$191. The personal signs for the *imperfect* precede, \$137, yet, since the prefixes generally are spoken very rapidly, they are abbreviated to the shortest sound, and must, therefore, be completed in part by suffixes which define gender and number. Still the imperfect. acc. \$137, has a partiality generally for longer and fuller sounds: and since in addition to this, the primary species of the imperfect in contrast with the moods which arise out of it, \$223 sq., has the force of the Indicative, and is therefore longer and heavier, the endings -û of the plur. of the third and second pers. masc. and -î of the fem. of the second pers. sing. may have a fuller form -ûn, în.

For the third pers. masc. sing. of the imperfect the bare stem is not adequate: ",\*) precedes as personal sign; fem. הָּ, acc. \$ 173; plur. masc. וְאַרִייִּ, fem. יִּרָּ, fem. יִּרָּ, so that thereby this person coincides with that of the second plur. fem. However, sometimes the masc. plur. takes the place of the fem. in this person and in the second also.

Second person sing. masc. — הָּ \*\*), fem. יָהָי or יָהָי; plur.

<sup>\*) &#</sup>x27;s oftened from l or n: for l or n corresponds to a pronoun of the third person, \$ 103, and is still found for this verbal person in Chald. and Is. 44. 14; in Syr. it has become n'.

<sup>\*\*)</sup> Since, therefore, the 3 fem. sing. coincides with this person, the former is at times distinguished by the suffix -ah (as in the perf.),

וְאָ—הְ, or וְּהְ, fem. הְּשִׁים. The ending בָּה is in the imperf. always without the tone, but the rest are not.

In the *first* pers. sing. only —אָ as prefix from אָלֹכִי, in the plur. —יָ.

In the first pers. sing. Qal אָבֶּהוֹב, , acc. \$ 67, אֹמֵר, acc. \$ 17 from אָבֶּרוֹל; but also, acc. \$\$ 75. 37, אוֹרָיל, אוֹרָיל Hos. 11. 4, and אָוֹין Job. 32. 11; in addition to the third per. יַאֲבִיל, יָיָאֲהַב.

In the later, less compact and looser language יוֹרֶה for הוֹרֶה is met with; further in יוֹלֵיל פ״י as if the ' of the third person belonged to the stem, יוֹלִיל Qal, ψ. 138. 6; and all in accordance with § 109.

The suffixes affect the pronunciation of the end of the ver-§193. bal stems more materially, and those that begin with vowels in another way than do the rest:

Job 22. 21; Prov. 1, 20; 8. 3; Ez. 23. 20; or -ta Deut. 33. 26; or even 713 (as in the fem. plur.) Ex. 1. 10; Judg. 5. 26.

Also the y'v usually allow the vowel ending after the double letter to become toneless: אבס, אבל, from בס, בל, whereby the somewhat lengthened final vowel often returns to its original shortness, as בְּסַבּה Hif. and נְסַבָּה Nif. is more frequent than נְסַבָּה with gutturals אין and on account of מחרו , acc. § 138, half-passive Oal of חרר. — The promotion of the reduplication into the first radical, \$ 112, takes place in these y"y before vowel-suffixes also, whether the second radical also is reduplicated: 1201 imperf. Hif., אות Hof., אותי half-pass. Qal, or whether this second reduplication is wholly given up: יְּלְּחוֹ, also יְקְרוֹ from the active Qal יקֹד. The treatment of the last syllable as an ordinary one without a trace of the original reduplication, with no promotion of the reduplication, is much more infrequent; but then this final syllable at least is preceded by another with a firm vowel: נקטה, נַסְבה as well as נְּמְשֵה and often so in the perf. Nif., יְמֵן imperf. Qal from the sing. יוֹם (comp. נָבְלָה, \$ 228); יער from יצר impf. Qal intrans.

\$194. The vowels á and é with which the perfect and imperfect of all stems of the אול כוספר, are wholly displaced by these vowelendings, yet the endings retain the tone even in pause (ψ 37. 20): אַלָּהְי וְּבָּלִהְ from אַּבְּי וְּבָּלָה. But since in that case the first pers. fem. sing. perf. would not be distinguished by its usual ending -ah from the masc., the harder -t is suffixed in this person, אַלְּהָר along on account of the tone merely: still in the verb when it stands alone (i. e., has no suffixes § 252) the vowel-ending that properly belongs to the verb otherwise (§ 173) is again suffixed to this person:

The א"ל sometimes follow the ל"ל here also: אָרָאָ a later form for מְלָאוֹ, and earlier in the fem. sing. third pers. אָרָאָן or with the above reduplication of the ending וְּלָּאָלוֹת אָוֹל אָרָא אָרָ צֹּלְאָלְאָן צֹּלְאָלְאָרָ צֹּלְאָרָ בּלְאָרָ אָרָ בּלְאָרָ בּלְייִייִי ווֹ a small pause Josh. 6. 17.

But the original -ae of the הל"ד resists, more like Aramaic, the end-vowel strongly so that it changes into aj with the tone: יְשֵׁלֵילוֹ 3 per. pl. imperf. Qal, הְיָהָ הְּיָה third pers. fem. sing. perf. Qal; which a can then remain even before the necessarily accented endings: יִרְבָּיִן הַ בַּעִינוֹ בּיִר בַּיִּר בַּיִין בּיִר בַּיִיר בּיִר בּיִר בּיִר בּיִר בּיִר בּיִר בּיִר בְּיִר  בְּיִיר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִר בְּיִיר בְּייר בְּייר בְּייר בְּיר בְּיר בְּיר בְּיר בְייר בְּיר בְייר בְּיר י בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייבְייִי בְּייי בְּייִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּייִי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּיִיי בְּייִי בְּייִיי בְּיי בְּיִיי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִיי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִיי בְּייִי בְּייִיי בְּייי בְּייִי בְּייִיי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייי בְּייִי בְּייי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייִי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְּייי בְייִיי בְייי בְּייי בְייי בְּייי בְייי בְייי בְייי בְייי בְּייי בְייי בְייי בְייי בְייי

§ 195. Since the suffixes beginning with consonants are likewise joined to the stem immediately, but then the final syllable of the stem remains without separation, they all become toneless, with the exception of the two D.— and D.—, which have

the tone of necessity, acc. § 85. In consequence of this closest connexion, the vowel of the last syllable in the stem is so much compressed that in this case even the  $\hat{t}$  of Hif-fl always appears as reduced to its original e; but for  $\check{e}$  is substituted the shorter vowel a, acc. § 89. 3: הַּבְּשָׁהִי, הָבְּשָּׁהָ, הָבְּשְׁבָּי, הָבְּשְׁבָּי, and then before the tone when it is necessarily upon the last syllable: בַּבְּבֶּהָ, from הָבָּיִבְּר, הְּבָּבְיָב, yet the tone-long  $\bar{e}$  appears in the imperf. of Pi-el and Hif-il: מַבְּבֶּרָה, הְּבַבְּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, מַבּרָבָּה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, סֹה בּבַּרְבָּה אַתְּבַּרָּה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבָּרָה, הַבְּבֶּרָה, הַבְּבָּרָה, הַבְּבָרָה, הַבְּבָּרָה, הַבְּבָּרָה, הַבְּבָּרְה, הַבְּבָּרְה, הַבְּבָרָה, הַבְּבָּרָה, הַבְּבָּרְבָּר, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבְּרָרָה, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבָּרְרָה, הַבְּבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָּרְה, הַבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָבְּרָה, הַבְּבְּרָרָה, הַבְּבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָּרְרָּרְרָּרְרָּרְרָּרְרָּרְרָּה, בְּבָּרְרָּרְּבָּרְרָּה, הַבְּרָרָה, הַבְּרָּרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָרָּרְרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָרָּרְרָּרָּרָרָרָּרְרָּרָרָּרָּרָּרָּרְרָּרָרְרָּרְרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרָּרְרָּרְרָרָּרְרָּרָר

ישנונה unites itself with the J of the suffix in writing also: אָלְוֹנְהָּה , or, acc. §. 82, with the cessation of the reduplication especially in pause: אָנְנְנָה or אָנְנְנָה Nif. 1s. 6o. 4. As אוֹן only the much used אָנָנָה to give assimilates its last radical to the ח as personal sign: בְּחָבְ 2 pers. singl. masc., הְחָבְּ fem., § 48. 3, plur. בְּחָבוּ.

But since the vowel, by nature long and unchangeable, \$ 196. which represents the second radical of the "y, strongly resists shortening, a remarkable and special vowel thrusts itself between the two syllables, which obviates their hard conjunction and to which the suffixes are appended, instead of to the last syllable as elsewhere. This vowel-termination, originally â and even of pronominal origin, has also so changed in accordance with the distinction of tense that â appears in the perf. and ê in the imperf. So perf. Hif. הַּקְּיִה, more rarely with a lower vowel before the tone: הַּיִּבְּהָּ, perf. Nif., where the â is often lowered to â, acc. \$ 89. 1. יְבָּהִיֹלְהָ imperf. Qal יִבְּיִרָּה, also sometimes written after the manner of יִּרָּהָיִר : לֹיה also sometimes written after the manner of

Still the Hebrew has in several instances accommodated itself to an abbreviation of the vowel-radical, so that the form appears as the common one without a separating vowel. So constantly in perf. Qal: מָבָרָל, וְבָּרָלְ, וֹבְרָלְ, וְבְּלֶלְ, וֹבְרֶלְ, וְבְּלֶלְ, וֹבְרֶלְ, וְבְּלֶלְ, וְבְלְּלְ, וְבְּלֶלְ, וֹבְּלֶלְ, וֹבְּלְלָם, וְבִּלְלָם, וְבִּלְלָם, וְבִּלְלָם, וְבִּלְלָם, וְבִּלְלָם, וֹבְּלֶלְתְ, וֹבְּלֶלְתְּלָם, וֹבְּלְלָבְּלָם, וּבְּבְלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וֹבְּלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וּבְלָם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וּבְּלֶלְם, וְבִּלְּלָם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלְם, וְבְּלֶלְם, וְבְּלְם, וְבְּלְלָם, וְבְּלְבְּלָם, וְבְּלְלָם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וֹבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וּבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וֹבְלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּבְלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּבְּלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וְבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְם, וּבְּלְלְלָם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּבְלְלְם, וּבְּבְלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְלְם, וּבְּלְם, וּבְּבְּלְם, וּבְּלְבְּלְם, ו

By a different way the y"y arrive at the same insertion, in § 197. order to make the double letter audible, a, i, u appear as toneless vowels before the inserted letter, according as the one or the other is founded in the stem-form: מַּבְּעָה from the active Qal,

ינה imperf. from the half-passive מַצל mere the half-passive מָצל mere the half-passive מָלְיָחָה אוֹ mere the half-passive is retained, הַסְבּר from הַסַב or Hif. מַלְּיָחִי, Nif.

The removal of the reduplication and accordingly of the insertion is possible, acc. § 112. but rare unless the reduplication is promoted: מַצְּלְנָה, as well as the above אַבְּלָנָה, אַבְּלְנָה, עַבְּרָה, עבּיּרָה, עבּיּרָה, עבּיּרְה, עבּיּרְה, עבּיּרְה, עבּיּרְה, עבּיּרְה, עבּיִבְּיה, עבּיּרָה, עבּיִבְּיה, עבּיִבְּיה, עבּיִבּיה, עבּיִבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבְיה, עבּיבּיה, עבּיבְיה, עבּיבּיה, בּבּיה, בּבּיה, בבּיבּ

The ל"ח just here follow the ל"ה very closely, so that in the imperf. before בה they assume constantly this é, in the perf. Nif. ê instead of â: הַּקְרֵאנָה or in a more original form הַמַצְאֵינָה Jer. 50. 20, הַמְצָאִינָה On the other hand אָחָנּוּ (we came), Jer. 3. 22, from אַחָה to come as if from אַחָה.

\$ 199. The pretonic vowel vanishes before all suffixes, acc. \$ 88; but if the ה of Hif. comes before a guttural 'D, it is spoken with a full short a instead of the most rapid a, acc. \$ 59: הַּתְּחָה, הָּעֶירָה from הַּתְּיִה, הַעִּיךְה. — The pretonic a remains constantly only in the imperf. Nif. and the infin. derived from it, since the reflexive stems generally show not much mobility and lightness: יְשָּׁמֵרוּן; inf. with suffix הַוֹּבְרַבַּם, Ez. 21. 29.

From "D, acc. § 41, יְרִשְׁהֶם, similarly with suffix אָיָרְהַיּף. And א of יַּלְהַיִּרְ to ask, becoming toneless assumes, § 67, constantly the sound בּינּ: שַׁאָלְהָּוֹ , אָשִׁלְהָוֹן .

Before the heavier endings of the imperf. -ân and -în (and the suffixes similar to those in length) the otherwise vanishing vowel can remain as pretone, acc. \$ 87; however o remains rarely, regularly a and e: יְכָּחֵבוּן, יִקְרָאוּן, יִקְרָאוֹן, jut these vowels in the pretone remain most frequently only in pause, more rarely also in the very mobile Pi-el.

\$ 200. With the participle as tense-form, \$ 168. 2, the personal pronouns do not unite: yet the masc. sing. (as in the perf.) and pl. stands as third pers. without any further affix: אֹכְרָא he or one calls, or of the future he or one will call; האֹכִרים they say.

### THIRD STAGE.

### RELATIONS OF THE WORD IN SENTENCES

(CASES AND MOODS.)

### Second transformation.

The word having gone through the above processes of for-\$201. mation, receives its final form, or rather its more accurate relation and meaning, when it takes its place and part in the whole sentence and connexion. In a sentence a series of conceptions is so arranged that the person as the principal word spoken of, or the subject, and what is said of it, or the predicate, compose its two essential members, with which every thing afterwards added is more or less closely connected: whilst if one of these members is wanting, a kind of incomplete sentence is presented. To the subject and the predicate, as the two independent supporters of the sentence, of which the one makes the other needful, belongs, therefore, the form of independence (casus or modus rectus, nominative and indicative) in calm discourse: all words beside these must be dependent or subordinate, i. e., in a casus or modus obliquus. But this subordination of a word may be very manifold, partly as to force and partly according to the meaning of the subordinated ideas: by the side of the accusative as the primary and most general casus obliquus stand a number of others of more definite meaning.

"Similarly a whole sentence can express partly or thoroughly an exclamation, a wish or a purpose, a mere possibility or merely conceived relation: these different manners of expression can also give to a word a new complexion and final form, \$ 223 sq.

In the expression of these finer shades of meaning in Hebrew the mere position and connexion of the words serves very-much instead of finer forms; and in this way also the word-building falls behind the sense in many instances, and then the sense becomes evident merely from the connexion of the whole discourse.

### I. THE RELATIONS OF THE NOUN.

#### 1. NOMINATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE.

- \$202. The nominal forms treated of hitherto assume no new distinction for either the nominative or the vocative: this is otherwise in the verb, \$\$ 223—29. The accusative also is in very many cases denoted only by the mere necessity of subordination, without external distinction, \$ 207.
- But the use of the Accusative is very wide and free. Every noun which is not placed as one of the two erect or uninflected supporters of the sentence, i. e., either as subject or predicate, nor subordinated to another noun, acc. \$ 208, in the construct state, i. e. subordinated by compulsion, which is therefore, on the contrary subordinated freely, i. e. in relation to and moving towards something else, stands in the accusative. Such a side (oblique) expression of the nominal idea can either be woven into the midst of the sentence as a lesser member of the same, or, unconnected and broken of in an exclamation, describe a more hurried, unformed feeling and tendency of the mind, as in the Infin. The to wait! i. e., wait!

  \$ 240. In the midst of a sentence the following there kinds of free subordination of a noun are possible:
- 1. The noun is subordinated to denote every relation of contents, measure and size, space and time, and manner, either referring only generally to the thought of the sentence, as "this year thou wilt die", "he sojourned three times", or explaining more definitely the manner of a particular idea, as he walked הוֹטָה proud. Hence arise in actual use especially two important results:
  - ו) Many ideas of this kind require at once nearer limitation, and stand therefore, acc. § 208. in the construct state before a new word following, as they stood מַחַר הַבְּיִּח הַבְּיִּח house of the house, i. e., without before it; they were house of

David, i. e., at the house; he sacrificed Dip number of them all, i. e., as many as there were of them. But in common usage only certain nouns are regularly used for these words signifying relations, and several of them occur either as such only, or at least usually only with a supplementary addition immediately following; they may therefore be called prepositive words, and the commonly so-called prepositions belong to them, § 217.

- 2) Many words which when standing alone make perfect sense, are so frequently used in this way that they may be justly called adverbs, according to our linguistic terminology, as מַר in the morning, i. e. early, חַמִיד constantly; מַרָף backwards; מעט little, אוֹם very, שׁלום well, הומיה still; safely; in the plur. פלאים for wonders, i. e., wonderfully, from substantives; סביב around, קל quickly, בים much, in the plur, נוראות terribly, \psi 65. 6, from predicative words, and אַרְמִיה Aramaically, i. e., when said of language in Aramaic. Several words assume at the end a more determinate neuter form: the otherwise rare ending -âm, -ôm, \$ 168, is here frequent with simple, the ending -ûth or -îth, §. 165, with longer stems, as מואם by day, בתאם suddenly, in a moment from אָמנָם, verily, אַמנָט backwards, קממיות erect. The feminine nouns prefer the -th, § 173, since a word of this kind stands as in construction with the whole sentence: nan much, sufficient.
- . 3) The noun is subordinated to define more nearly the contents of an idea, to refer what is general to something more special; whether a verb in this way receive nearer definition, as חַלָה אֶח־רַגְלְיוּ he was diseased in his feet, or a noun, as three מַּמִח מַשְׁמַם מַּמַח measures of meal.
- 2. The subordination becomes somewhat closer and stron-\$205. ger if the verbs of motion are construed by means of simple subordination with a noun of *direction*, since the true and proper force of the accusative is to describe motion and relation: into the field.
- 3. The subordination is still closer if it presents the object \$206. as met with by the action and thereby defined, presents therefore the effect of a cause, as אָם הוא he smote him, אַמַעְאָדִי I have

heard it. But an accusative of this kind can be subordinated just as well to the local pronoun הָבָּנָה en, ecce, פָּבָּה en eum! \$ 262.

In modern languages the construction of the accusative with an active verb remains almost alone, since it is preferred to express the other in themselves looser constructions by means of prepositions or otherwise: but in Hebrew the accusative generally allows very great freeness and the widest application.

\$207. Yet the meaning of the accusative in Hebrew, as the language has developed itself, lies rather in the mere position of the words in the sentence and in the quick perception of their sense than in an external form. Only the personal pronoun, when it depends upon the verb and is joined to it, takes a form so different in pronunciation that the idea of the accusative appears in it externally also, \$\$\circ{8}{247}\$—53.

The language has in the preposition אַה (properly אַה, \$ 264) a possible sign of the accusative, it is true, but this is used only

- ו) with the personal pronoun, chiefly when they cannot be appended immediately to the verb in the manner of suffixes, e. g., when the sense requires the accusative to be put before the verb: אַרְּ מָאָנּ thee, even thee, have they cast off.
- 2) with substantives, yet only when they are definite in meaning (§ 277), and therefore on account of greater force are easily more strongly subordinated, and even then rather with persons than things, as: they anointed אַח־הָוּ David. Similarly with the personal interrogative: אַח־מָּשׁ whom? and with the demonstrative pronoun if it has strong personal force, as אַח־הַּשׁ this acc.

## 2) THE WORD IN ATTRACTION, OR THE STATUS CONSTRUCTUS.

\$208. The construct state, or the *closer*, compulsory subordination is a kind of composition of words, by virtue of which to one word another, closely connected with it in thought, is also externally joined, and in that way a chain of ideas is formed: only in Semitic the composition is so effected that that which is

first in thought remains first also in the simple and most natural position. And since the first word does not exist for itself independently (in statu absoluto), but as first finding its object and end in the word following, it attracts this latter word and closely subordinates it to itself: so that there is formed by that means that which we best denominate as a word-chain. — And so every noun in a sentence stands either most closely linked (in statu constructo) to the following noun, or not, that is, remains in statu absoluto.

A chain of words, however, can form only one member in a whole sentence, either subject or predicate, or a freely subordinated member of the sentence, never a complete sentence; for it is only a most closely united whole, arising from and sustained by one firm stay, whilst in a sentence words and chains of words freely meet together. For this reason the first word of such a chain can never be a verb, inasmuch as the verb includes both subject and predicate: the formation of a chain requires as its basis a noun, or what is equal to a noun. On the other hand, the word that is closely subordinated may very well be a verb and even a sentence; only in that case the whole forms but one member of the greater whole, e. g., יום ראיחיו day - I saw him, i. e., of the day on which I saw him. — But if the subordinated word is a noun. it can subordinate another to itself, and in this way the chain may be prolonged as far as the sense requires, as פרי וְדֵל לכב אשור the fruit of the exaltation of the heart (i.e. the pride) of the king of Assyria.

From this appears in general how far this close subordi-\$ 209. nation of a second word to one preceding it can be applied. But the Hebrew (as all Semitic languages) uses this idiom especially to give the force of our *genitive*, since the first word as a noun needing completion attracts the following word to supply its deficiencies and subjugates it, as if it must necessarily belong to the second (our genitive) and this be from it. When therefore words are most diametrically opposed to each other in sense, as father, son, this word-chain is then, just as our genitive, most necessary and close: 

| The second content is the second content is the second content in sense, as father, son, this word-chain is then, just as our genitive, most necessary and close:

the son, or בְּרְהָאָב the son of the father. Otherwise the main cases of its usage are these:

- ו) Every adjective and participle subordinates to itself for its own definition and explanation a following substantive, as great in might = mighty.
- 2) Every substantive may limit itself by another: first, every substantive expressing action, as אַרְּילָ אַרְילְ the seeking of thy brother. Then every other substantive, and since in the Hebrew, acc. § 164, the forms for derived adjectives have not become very current, a subordinated substantive of quality often serves instead of an adjective, as אַרוֹן עֵילָ ark of wood, i. e., wooden; or certain personal names of general signification are connected as first members of the series with substantives to form predicative words: אַרְּיַלְּילִי עִיר formae, i. e. formosus, אַרְיִּלְּילִי מִיר מִּילְּילִינִי מִיר מִּילְּילִינִי מִיר מִּילְּילִינִי מִּילְּילִינִי מִּילְּילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילִי מִילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילִי מִּילִי מִּילִי מִילִי מִּילִי מִּילְילִינִי מִּילְילִי מִּילְילִי מִּילִי מִּילְילִי מִּילְילְילִינִי מִּילְילְילִי מִילְילְילִי מִּילְילְילִי מִּילְילְילִי מִּילְילְילְילְילִי מִילְילְילְילְילְילִים מִּילְילִי מִּילְילְילִי מִילְילְילְילְילְילְילִינְיי מִּילְילְילְילְילִי מִּילְילְילִיי מִּילְילְילְילְילְילִי מִּילְילְילְילְילִיי מִּיְילְילְילִיי מִּילְילְילְילְילְילִים מִּיְילְילִייִי מִּילְילְילִים מִּילְילְילְילְילְילִים מִּילְילִייִי מִּיְיְילִייְלְילְילְילְילִילְילְילְילְילִיי מִּילְילְילְילְילִייִי מִּילְילְילְילְילִילְילְילְילְילְילְילְילְילְילִילְילְילְילִייִי מִּילְילִייִי מִּילְילְילְילְי
- 3) Several substantives which govern another substantive express only the most general ideas of space, time, number, existence and nature, and therefore with this meaning are incomplete and need supplement, without which, either expressed or understood, they cannot very well be used. To these belong:
  - a) פֿל (שְרָאֵל, properly totality of—, פֿל (שְרָאֵל all Israel; יַחְדָּרְ his unity, i. e., as adverb as which alone it occurs together, unâ; יו multitude of—, רב שָׁלום much peace; יו abundance of—, מַלא חְפָּן enough milk; מְלֹא מְלֵּא מְלֵּא מְלֵּא מִלֹא מְלֵּא a hand full, and all the numerals, § 267;
  - b) שַּׁבֶּן soul of— in the sense of our self, בַּפְּשָׁם themselves; person of—, וְבָּיִּ his person, i. e., he in person; of inanimate things שַּׁבֵּי body of—, וֹבָּי בָּי the heaven itself. Further בַּי existence of—, i. e., there exists, is (is not wanting); אָאָן בְּיִבְּי בְּיִבִּים הַשְּׁבִים, the English un—, without, בַּלִּיי מָבִּים unanointed, בַּלִּיי מָבִּים no number, without number, in poetry בֹּלִי מִבְּי מָבִים ungod; שׁׁרִ duration of—, i. e. still is, when it stands alone with a noun following.

Some of these little words, which describe the mere existence of an object, can also stand alone in the sentence with their supplement, in the sense of there is—, there is not—, there is still— etc.; but then the two words, being subject and predicate, are often separated and the second can be connected more loosely, § 262.

c) lastly all prepositions, § 217. The indications of time, place, cause, purpose, similarly subordinate to themselves the whole following sentence, although somewhat more loosely, § 222.

All these instances may strictly be reduced to this, that \$210. our languages might express the closely subordinated, the construct state, in the genitive.

The general sense of this subordination allows a much wider extension in usage: an adjective also, or a relative sentence, might be in this way subordinated to a preceding substantive, \$\psi\$ 16. 3; and two words in themselves of equal force and reference might be thereby united to express a single higher meaning (composition by means of coordination) as \(\text{DDDD} \) wisdom and knowledge, Is. 33. 6. But this wider usage prevails but little.

In the formation of this status constr. the subordinated \$211. word (if it does not itself further subordinate a following noun. § 209) remains unchanged in form: the personal pronoun only is appended in this connexion so closely to the governing member of the series that it assumes in this instance a peculiar form, \$\$ 247. 254 sq. But the first member, as requiring for and linking with itself the second, is, firstly, spoken more incompletely, quicker and shorter; and, secondly, had originally a final vowel as a distinct connecting sign, to which the whole word strongly tended, in order to attract the new member the more strongly by means of this support. But there now remain but scattered remnants of this final vowel of attraction; originally it was probably as a relative particle ja in its full form, but its present form is usually i, as in the proper-name מלכיערק, lit. king of right, rarely ô: אָב son of -, Num. 24. 3; Gen. 1. 24, or ae in מני from with מני Is. 30. 11 (both poetical for זה, \$ 217 a). In the old ending of the plur. -âm (for îm \$ 177) has been formed ae from d + i after the m has dropped off, and so retained: but elsewhere the connecting letter generally has become very rare, and, with the exception of ancient proper-names and some relative particles (as אַלָּחִי without, װּלָחִי besides), belongs more to the poetic language.

Nevertheless where this vowel-ending is no longer visible, many traces of it are left.

- ו) The ending of the fem. sing. is always hard -th as before a new vowel: אָרְחָה from אָרְחָה; in words which can append the -th without the tone in the statu absoluto, acc. \$\$ 173, 186—88, it is usually still more easy and frequent, as מֵלְחֶמֶה.
- 2) The ending of the fem. plur. -oth has in general no connective vowel: still, as a trace of it, the ae of the masc. plur. has been transferred to the fem. plur. in the construct state of the words אַבְּבָּ (bamothae) heights of—, comp. § 215, and אַבְּבָּ at the head of—, as well as generally before the suffixes, § 259.
- 3) Several noun-stems return in the construct state to a vowel as their original third radical, even if they have always lost it in the absolute state: the names of kindred אֲבִי father of—, אֲבִיי, \$ 149; further בֵּעָה of בֵּעָה friend with st. abs. בַּעָּ \$ 146. Simple stems of the first form often throw at least the accented vowel to the end of the word, mostly before gutturals: וְבַע חָבַר, חְבֵּר חָבַר, בְּבַע from וְבַע (vanity).

# § 212. The shortening of vowels moreover is as follows:

- ז. The vowels which are merely pretones wholly disappear, as well those before the last stem-syllable: מְּמִים, מְמָים, from חָמָה, as also those before the endings of gender and number. To the latter class belong
- ו) The plur. of simple stems of the first form, in which the short original vowel then reappears of necessity after the first radical: בְּפָרִים, מְחָרֵים, מְלָכִים, from מָלָכִים, מְלָכִים, מְלָכִים, מָלְכִים, מָלְכִים, מָלְכִים, אָלָכִים, from בְּפָּרִים, מְלָכִים and יַלְבִי from יְלֵבִי from יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי and יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי and יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי and יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי and יִלְבִי from יִלְבִי from יִלְבי acc. \$ 146, and יִלְבִי acc. \$\$ 186. 1, 174.

From אָלְיוֹיִנִים the third radical is often lost, but at times it resists the loss by the retention of the pretone: יְחֵיִי or יִיחָל from לְּחָיִי (cheeks). Also א from אַ"ץ or א"ל often retains the pretonic vowel: מָנוֹן and יְמֵיּנִי from אַרְחָר, אָטְחַ from אַחָר. — Besides the a is retained in words like אַרָּל אָנֹנוֹן, אַבְּּטָר covering, as § 187: מְנֵּן אָרָל אַנֹּנוֹן.

- 2) Of the tone-lengthened vowels of the simple stems of the second form  $\bar{a}$  always disappears,  $\bar{e}$  less often,  $\bar{o}$  not at all: in the first radical an i is spoken in case of necessity after the falling away of the following vowel, but in the place of this i the stronger a is found not only in the stems with  $\bar{a}$  but also on the other hand in some with  $\bar{e}$ : ישִׁרִים from שַּׁרְטִּח and יַנְבְּנֹח ; שְּׁבָּחָה , הַשְּׁרִים, but also חַּנְבְּוֹח prom שַׁרְטִּח from שַׁרָטִח from לַּגָּבֹל, הוֹבָּבֹח, from the sing.

The shortening لِمَ إِنْهُمْ from يُجْرِيْهُمْ, \$ 158, is also to be observed.

- 2. The vowels of the final syllable that can be shortened \$213. are shortened as far as the tone allows, but since the word in the st. c. only rarely connects itself with the following word without any tone (by Maqqef, \$97):

- 2) The ō of the second form is very rarely shortened, before Maqqef גְּדָל Nah. 1. 3, and בְּלָּהְ before a guttural, from נְּבֶּר, אָבֶּר, אָבָר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אָבָר, אַבָּר, אַבַּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבָּר, אַבַּר, אַבָּר,
- 3) ái is contracted into ae: הֵּי הָּכֵּיח Deut. 15. 8, from הֵי, בְּיִח, hence the dual-ending -áim after the loss of m is contracted into -ae, and so becomes like the st. c. of the plur. Similarly מַוֹּח from מָיָה \$ 146, yet עֵיֵל from מָיָה remains. The é of the הֹי contracted from ae, becomes simple, tonelong בּי שִׁיּה, בּוֹלֶה, הְעָבָּה from הַּבָּה, הַעָּבָּה, הְעָבָּה, שִׁיּה, אָבָּה, מָבָּה, מָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אַבּה, אָבָה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבָה, אָבּה, אָבָה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבּה, אָבָּה, אָבּה, אָבָּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּּה, אָבָּה, אָבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אָבּה, אָבּה, אָבּה, אָבּה, אָבּה, אָבּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אָבָּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אָבּה, אָבָּה, אָבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבּה, אַבָּה, אָבָּה, אַבּה, א
- 4) אַבְּוֹסְ with the tone drawn backwards from אַבְּוֹסְ helmet, formed acc. § 156, is an instance of peculiar abbreviation.
- \$ 214. 3. Of וְּכְּרוֹן, \$ 163, אוֹבְּרוֹן, \$ 154, st. c. תְּבְּרוֹן; but שׁבָּבִּים before Maggef. Similarly אַנְמִי from the plur. אַנְמִים of אָנְמִים but, on the contrary, נְכַבַּהִי, part. Nif. as substantive, «the honourable», from the plur. נְכַבָּרִים.
- \$215. Here and there still greater abbreviations are to be met with, as the ô of the plur. fem. of a word that occurs mostly only in the plur.; በነጋጋ heights is shortened into the most rapid o before the new ending ae, 211: ነገጋጋ bômothae. Further in the first vowel in the stem \$ 160, the prefix of which is somewhat loose (comp. ህግቦቦ with Dag. dirimens \$ 28): ነጀጋቦ from ህግቦቦ sanctuary, Ez. 7. 24, በነሂደቦቦ with the st. abs. በነሂደቦቦ, sing. ሂሄደቦቦ corner, Ex. 26. 23 sq.; 36. 28 sq.

## THE n- of motion. - prepositions.

\$ 216. The only feeble attempt to form case-endings appears in the affixing of a demonstrative תְּבְי (rarely תְּבֵּי חָה, to denote tendency, direction and motion to a place, as תְּבִּי חַוֹּה towards the mountain, מְבְּרֶ towards Marah (fem. sing.), מְבֶּי to the Chaldeans, i. e. to Babylon, also בַּשִּׁרְ שָׁבְּי with the meaning of our in or at Babylon, when it is sufficient merely to refer to a place, e. g. if a stranger speaks of it, Jer. 29. 14. On the other hand, this ending can never express motion towards a person; and the force of an accusative, the case of reference and motion, might, indeed, easily be given to it, as תְּלִישְׁיתְה \*the third time» (zum dritten) Ez. 21. 19, further in the phrase תְּלִילָה לָּדְּ for profanity to thee! i. e. far be it from thee!

This weak vowel-ending is appended without the tone to the long vowel of the last syllable, leaves the short accented vowel which cannot advance short: בְּרָה to the mountain, acc. \$ 70 from חַלָּה, הַרָּה in music higher! i. e. loud! from אָם, acc. \$ 38, and often retains it even when it might advance or when a firm syllable precedes: מַרְבָּרָה from the st. c. מַרְבָּרָה from the st. c. מַרְבָּרָה since the tone moves backward, acc. \$ 91, and still remains before א, acc. \$ 63. To vowel-endings, excepting that of the fem. sing. which passes into -th, this weak vowel is not easily appended: it is never found attached to the st. c. plur., and such forms as מַּרְנָה שִׁשְׁשׁ downwards from מַּמְבֶּרָה ascent and מַשְׁה decline, root מַשְּׁה with the e displaced, which have become adverbs merely, are rare.

A preposition can be prefixed to a word of this kind without altering its meaning, for still nearer definition, as אַרְיָּשְׁבָּ from towards the north, i. e., from northwards, אַבְּיִבְּיִבּ in southwards, i. e., in the south, יִּבְּיִבְּיִבְּיִי into hell!

For the expression of all the other subordinations in a \$217. sentence, where neither this  $n_{-}$  of motion nor the stat. constr., nor the accusative as before explained, can be used, prepositions must be made to serve. All prepositions (except those described \$221) have originally a local meaning; but the local meaning readily touches here and there or wholly disappears in the mental. They are separated from the verb, since the language does not connect verbs with prepositions. There are as follows:

a. 1. 12 (\$ 242) out and from (although each of these meanings can be expressed with greater nicety by circumlocution, \$ 219); hence of the side and region, like a dextra; of the part of a whole; but also to draw back from, where we say in English of (to be afraid of) and from (to hide from),

but the Germans vor; distant far from, i. e., without. As a sign of comparison in relation to something predicated of two objects, distant from, far from means more than; it stands just as the Latin ablative with the comparative, only that the Hebrew has no special and proper sign for the comparative. Of time: from (the time specified) on, immediately after; of an immediate cause: immediately on account of something.

b. 2. - to, in relation to—, but also to put into the ark, i. e. to put them within for preservation there; comp. els olxov in the N. T. = at home, Germ. zu Hause.

The - לְּ, shortened from אָל, also expresses this direction or relation, but is used much more frequently and tropically; it forms adverbs, as לֵרֵב in abundance, לְּבָּבְּעִין to rest, restfully, ad oculum, i. e., oculatim; and serves especially to express the dative of our languages, mainly the so-called dativus commodi; further with passive verbs, to supply the really active person, as יַּשְׁמֵע לִי he is heard (by) me. Of time: towards; of the external cause: at or on account of.

ער, properly in the fuller form ערי, with an Infinitive while, elsewhere unto, quite to, even.

c. 3. -3, a very frequent particle, the Latin *in* with the ablative and the accusative, our 1) *in*; but -2) of the immediate vicinity *at*, *by*, *on* and *about*, to speak, think *about*, or *upon* something; and -3) with, to express the instrument or rather *means*; hence to swear with God as intercessor, Latin per, but in English and German by; and of the price which is given for something, our for.

The word רָבָ, related to בְּ, can be used only with two objects, or a dual, or a word having the idea of multitude; the second object can be connected more briefly by means of the dative merely, § b, as מָנִם לָמֵנִם between water and water.

Dy and with little difference no (arising from enth) express a more independent accompaniment, nearness, or reciprocity: with, near, against another; also as; further «this is with men, i. e., I have it, know it, will it.

- 4. More definite local relations:
- d. 1) על upon, over, is used of clothing and ornament, also sometimes of protection, but more frequently of a burden or duty which has to be borne, and therefore takes the place of the dativus incommodi et violentiae. It is also our as to, and on account of. Subsequently, it gradually coincided with אָל, s. b, so much that it came more and more to take its place. —
- 2) אַחַר or אַחַר acc. \$ 63 for אַחַר, after, behind, also of time. אַחַר also means behind, yet in distinction from אַחַר, more closely behind, as if something would come through; and hence through of place and instrument Joel 2. 8, 9; or as if something surrounded a thing, and hence about, around, tropically for, מׁשְּׁטָּר, אַבְּעָּר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָּר, אַבְּעָּר, אַבְּעָּר, אַבְּעָר, אָבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אָבְעָר, אַבְּעָר, אָבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּער, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּער, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּער, אַבְּער, אַבְּעָר, אַבְּעָר, אַבְיּבְער, אַבְיּבְער, אַבְּער, אַבְּער, אַבְּער, אַבְיּבְער, אַבְיבְּער, אַ
  - 3) אצל by the side of, beside; טבר beyond.

Some of these relative words are first formed by the com-\$218. position of prepositions with other words, or are made more distinct and definite. לְּקְרֵאח, acc. \$73, lit. ad occursum is simply our to meet, Germ. entgegen. — לְּקְרֵאח to the face, i. e. before, is most frequently used in this meaning, but also in a temporal sense; עַרִי upon the face, i. e. dose before, בְּלֵּרָי the inimical or overpowering cause, on account of. — In composition with a negative מַבְלְּעָרִי, or somewhat shorter בְּלְעָרִי not unto, i. e. except, praeter.

A compound word like has accordingly assumed such a simple idea that yet another preposition may be prefixed to it, § 219.

By the composition of a weaker preposition with another \$219. and stronger one the relation may be denoted more definetely; and

ו) in the preposition itself, without reference to the construction: מַעֵּל is suprâ, חַהְּחַ infrâ, below, where וְם denotes the part and side, as in מִימִר without, חַבְּים within, מִימִר right of—; similarly מְשִׁלְּהְ upwards, \$ 216. — On the other hand, לִמִר denotes the space as measured forth from, i. e. inde a.

- 2) with reference to a verb of motion, a stronger preposition, which itself predicates no motion, placed after אל expresses more definitely the aim and end: unto behind, can be translated more simply in language possessing an accusative ending, by the one preposition under (Germ. unter, Lat. sub) with the accusative, and this first preposition would be less necessary generally if the Hebrew could govern different cases by prepositions. More frequently the more definite preposition after in describes the more exact manner of the motion from the object: מעל out from between; מעל from upon — in all the significations of the simpler by, \$ 217. d; מחחה from under; מאחר from behind; also מיפני from before: סעם or האם lit. from near, which, when referring to persons, usually express no more than our from more definitely, as and, lit. «from the midst» expresses our out of, are most frequent and noteworthy.
- \$ 220. The longer prepositions can also serve in a sentence without connection with a noun, whenever the sense is clear from the context; they become adverbs then: מַּלְיִם below, עָּלְ מִּים (in a longer form) afterwards; מַּלְיִים, coming back into the absolute state, formerly, בּּנְיִים, acc. \$\$ 218, 16. within, into and within the house through the first door, ψ. 45. 14.
- S 221. Of another origin and of a somewhat different nature is the preposition אָר, as, like, \$ 105, which appears less freely than our as before a whole sentence, but rather, just as our like or the Latin instar, governs a single noun, and so far is equal to a common preposition, as בּוֹלְבֶּר as Jahve, אַרְבֶּר as a servant. This particle is used more freely, after the manner of an adverb, in certain constructions, פַּרַבְּרוֹ as to-day, \$ 244; still it is generally treated as a prepositions, and therefore often stands without any intervening definitions immediately before a noun, as: O had I בּוֹרָבוֹ like the days of former-times, i. e. such days as those of former times were. With numbers it is our about: מֹרַבְּרַר as his speaking, i. e., as, or as soon as he spoke (speaks).
- \$222. A particle that can appear only at the head of a whole sentence, as DN if, and, pa also, cannot so closely subor-

dinate a noun to itself as a preposition can, but stands as a conjunction more loosely before the one or the many words with which it is brought into a connexion of thought. If single particles like in and, if or a also, add a single noun to a preceding noun, they only continue the relation of the noun in the sentence \*. But it is otherwise with the vav consecutivum §. 230—235.

If a particle generally used as a preposition is to become a conjunction, a relative particle must be joined to it, which appears at the head of the whole sentence, and upon which the force of the preposition is operative, as מַשֵּׁי or in poetry more frequently בֹּשִׁי as that, i. e., as, מַשֵּׁי in that, i. e., since, ישׁ instead of that; yet single prepositions, through not the shortest, are sometimes exalted to the position of conjunctions, as שֵׁ till; and some few compound particles are constantly conjunctions when they stand before subject and predicate, but prepositions when they stand before a single substantive: שִׁ since as prep. and adv. שְׁ זְּלָה אָּ שִׁ whilst or within this or that time, שְׁבֶּשְׁ and שֵּבֶּשׁ when not and without, further in the compounds of שִׁ which expresses fulness, with שְׁבָּשְׁרָ or בַּאָּ מִבְּיִ as often as or since every —.

## 2. THE RELATIONS OF THE VERB (MOODS).

## 1) Voluntative, Imperative, Cohortative.

The Perfect, spoken with more than usual force and as \$223. an exclamation, may be made to express volition, as a precative expressive of a holy desire that one would see fulfilled, as perished (may they be) the wicked! ψ 10. 16; Job. 21, 16: 22. 18: but then the perf. must stand at the head of the sentence with great emphasis. This usage is in Hebrew infrequent, and does not affect the form of the perf. But from the imperf., which as the sign of what is becoming can also express

<sup>\*</sup> But might then have the force of prepositions also, which the Arabic shows and of which there are some traces in Hebrew.

various activities and exertions of the will, branch off, acc. \$ 136. 1, 3, in new forms the common moods of the will:

\$ 224. 1. The voluntative, or the expression of the desire that something may be, arises from the imperf. by means of a shorter pronunciation only, in that the voice seeks its rest towards the beginning of the word. But the effect of this is but little seen in the many persons of the strong verb that close with the third radical, on account of the laws of the tone: only the  $\hat{i}$  of Hif. can contract into  $\bar{e}$ , acc. § 35: מַשְׁלַן may he cause to dwell! NYIF let her bring forth! and in gutt. מ' a is found even in Pi-el, as ישׁלָּח may he release! The shortening is more observable in 1"y, where the tone can move backwards to the penultima if a closely connected particle precedes or follows: אַל־הָשֶׁב ne reduc/ from יָשֶׁב־נָא Hif., יָשֶׁב־נָא Hif., redeat quaeso! from ਹੀਈਂ Qal; but usually the tone remains upon the last syllable, so that here not short but tone-long vowels arise in the place of the unchangeable ones: מָלָם, and somewhat stronger יַקָם Qal, יַקָם Hif.; from יְקַם, \$ בַּזָם, in pause ካውኮ; yet when there is gutt. 'b also, the î remains sometimes in Hif. (here and in the similar abbreviations \$\$ 226, 232), as יוֹטִיע לי 72. 4; יוָניא for יוָניא, acc. \$ 18, root אוא, ψ 141. 5; 55. 16.

The ל"ה lose the final é entirely in the backward tendency of the tone: יַבֵל from Piel יַבֵּל from יַבֵּל Nif.; הַבְּיָה, אַבָּה אוֹר.; from Piel יַבֵּל from יַבָּל Nif.; הַבְּיָה, אוֹרָ, אוֹרָ, אוֹרָ, אוֹרָ, וֹבְּיִל אוֹר.; from Qal either יַבְּרָה, inasmuch as the i remains accented, or, acc. \$ 33, more frequently יִבְּיִא from gutt. יַבּיא from יַתְּוֹ, so that Qal and Hif. coincide; yet the i remains here also in some roots with the harder הוֹר. \$ 64, with Dag. lene retained acc. \$\$ 26, 48, יַתְּרָ, on the other hand unshortened: יִתְּרָה, acc. \$ 65; from יִתְּי, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, in pause יִתְּרָ. From Yell: יַתַּר Qal from יִתְּרָ, from יִתְּרָ, root יִתְּרָ.

Still sometimes the full form appears, or the  $\ell$  is changed into the simpler  $\bar{\epsilon}$  or further shortened into i, after the analogy of the Aramaic, as § 213. 3.

\$ 225. The persons which, acc. \$ 191, suspend -ûn or -în to the root ought to cast off the -n; and before those persons with 73— at least the "y ought in all cases so to abbreviate

themselves that the inserted vowel, § 196, should drop off, Qal: but these distinctions are not established and observed in the present form of the Hebrew language.

The Imperative, the intensified voluntative, always stands \$226. so disconnectedly as an exclamation that the negation of the will אל (שוֹח ne!) cannot precede it but only the voluntative: אל חוד ne sis; אל חוד ne fac! It has also a form for the second person only, as the nearest object of command; and this not in the pure passive stems, Pu-al and Hof-al. It is derived entirely from the voluntative, and has the same abbreviation towards the end, only here and there more thoroughly carried out: its most distinctive mark is the rejection of the prefixed personal sign T, whilst otherwise number and gender are indicated clearly enough. But this as applied to individual forms produces some new results. In all stems which begin with the external affix 77, this aspirate, previously displaced by the personal sign, § 192, assumes its old place; in Nif. in addition to this the tone is sometimes attracted wholly to the penultima: השמר

The remarkable form לְּלְבְּצְיׁ for לְּלְבְּעָּיִ, through a greater shortening of the pronunciation, is sometimes found, whereby the imper. Nif. in the plur. appears to coincide with the perf.

\$227. The "ש lose in this imper. Qal the first radical, which in the imperf. is very much altered, acc. \$139: שֵׁלֵ plur. שְׁלֵבוּ from מֵלֵיב, plur. מְשְׁבוּ from מֵלְיבָּה, somewhat longer on account of the short word; but on the other hand, the first radical of "ש is as a rule retained: מְלֵּבְּ from יְצַיּבְ from יְצַיּבְ from יְצַיּבְ but also py; still greater abbreviation is evident through the drawing back of the tone of the plur. קְּבִי מִּנִינִי ye! i. e., come on! go to! comp. \$ 228. The אַבּי אָרָ \$ 139, form the imperative as a new form: אַבּיל with imperf.

The J'd the more constantly they assimilate the J in the imperf. Qal. acc. § 139, and become like the ש"ם, lose so much the more the J in the imper. also: אָשָּׁא, וְשֵׁה, but שַּׁבְּ, but שַּׁבָּ, שְׁיִּא, וְשִׁהְּ, אַשְּׁה, אַשְּׁה, plur. וּשִׁיּן, but acc. § 91 with the tone tending backwards also וּשִׁין Josh. 3. 9, before a closely connected word with the tone at the beginning. Likewise אַר מַבּוּע, plur. אַרְהָּ from the root אַרְבָּי.

The Qal of ע"י is not סף but somewhat longer סף, or written also, but in the plur. fem. אַבְּנָה is possible. The words שִׁיר, שִּׁים remain unshortened, with others of the class described in \$ 127.

The ה"ל losing their final vowel in the masc. sing. Qal would become too short, and therefore they are always אָלָה, with ē acc. \$ 213. 3, also הַנָּטָה, an original form, with the voluntative שַּהָּ; from הְּיָהָה to live הַּהָּה, fem. יְהַה; plur. from a א"ם at the same time אַשׁה bake ye! and אַהָּה, acc. \$. 194, come ye!, with a firm vowel at the beginning, \$ 59, because these roots seek strong vowels there. On the other hand, אַנַּה command! from שַּנַּה voluntative from the Pi-el עַּנָּה rarely בּנַה acc. 213. 3.

\$228. 3. A peculiar strengthening of the two preceding moods is attained by suffixing the הַ (rarely הַ) of direction, \$ 216, which connected with verbs expresses more strongly the direction of the will. This is most frequent and at the same time most characteristic only in the first person, as the person of self-admonition and self-excitation, as אַלְכָה let me sing! שׁלֵּכְה we will go! also when the will of the speaker is under external compulsion, as: into Hades אַלְכָה I must go! Is. 38. 10. In the third person it occurs only here and there in poetry; some-

what more frequently with the second person of the imperative, but even then generally only in Qal and in this mostly only in connexion with the very short forms, \$ 227, of weak stems, as אַלָּבָה give!, אַיָּלְי kiss! אַבָּל sit! from לָבָה , and with the words used almost as interjectional particles: מָלֵב מָּט מְּשׁמְי give! here! both equal to come! well! but the last word shortened acc. \$ 227.

It follows very much the ה— of motion belonging to the noun \$ 216 in the manner of its annexation: it is appended without the tone to the naturally or otherwise unchangeable vowel of the last syllable: הַּכְּהִיבָּה, אֶּקְנְּהָה, \$ 91, and often receives the tone when it displaces the short or merely tonelong vowel preceding it: אָּהְדֵּלֵּה from אַהְּרָה, \$ 108. וֹ, אַהְרַּלְּה in which case, however, a vanishing o usually reappears in connexion with the first of the two vowelless consonants which might arise: אָרֶרָה, אֶּרְרָה, אֶרְרָה, לְּיִרְהָה, אֶרְרָה, לְיִבְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, הַּבְּרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, שִׁרְרָה, הַבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְּרָה, בּיִבְרָה, בּיִבְּיִרְה, בּיִבְּיִרְה, בּיִבְּיִבְּה, בּיִבְּיִבְּיִּה, בּיִבְּיִבְּיִה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבִּרְה, בּיבְיּה, בּיבּיר, בְּיבִּרְה, בּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה,  בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָּה, בְּיבְרְה, בְּיבְרְיּה, בּיבְרָּה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָה, בְּיבְרָּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְרָּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיִבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיבְּיּה, בְּיִבְּיּה, בְּיִבְּיִיּה, בְּיבְּיִיה, בְּיבְיּיִבְּיּיִבְיּיִיּיִיה, בְּיִבְיּיִיּיִיה, בְּיִ

Here also this ending is rarely attached to vowel-endings; therefore the full, unabbreviated pronunciation of the אָר", and אָי" also, takes the place of this intensive אָר, which is very rarely (ψ 41. 5; 77. 4; Is. 41, 23) used saving when an unchangeable vowel precedes אַר" (as אַרְּוֹאָן); neither can it be suffixed to those persons of the imper. that close with vowels, i. e., to all except the masc. sing., although remarkably the אָרָן אָר sometimes accent the last syllable:

From all this follows that the voluntative is confined \$229. commonly to the third person, the imperative always to the second, and the intensifying — mostly to the first; and the last modification may for brevity be denominated the *cohortative*.

2) THE MODIFICATIONS OF AN ACTION AS STANDING ALONE OR IN RELATION. — CONSECUTIVE MOODS AND TENSES.

As a preposition and a subordinated noun form an in-§230. separably close combination, so also can a conjunction and

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a subordinated verb, in which case the one member conditions the other and only both give in this combination the full sense. But for this end particular conjunctions only are used, since an ordinary conjunction stands quite disconnectedly before the sentence without such force. One of these important conjunctions is especially the copula when it does not denote the simple and, but, as our then or so, more emphatically the sequence of action, time, or thought; and it was then without doubt brought more distinctly forward in the spoken language. If this or a similar conjunction becomes connected with a tense or mood, relatively progressive tenses and moods are formed, which join themselves on to any given place in a thought and describe the further sequence from that point onwards; and the two tenses take a new and specific form for this object. Of chief importance in this respect is

1) The relatively progressive Imperfect. The syllable a- with the reduplication of the first consonant is prefixed, as a temporal particle referring to the past, to the imperfect, is of pronominal origin, and, corresponding to the augment\*, means then, but is always amalgamated with the emphatic copula -1 and into va-; by means of this amalgamation of the two particles is produced the more emphatic ánd that refers an action; which has been firmly connected with the narrative at some point, to past time. The imperfect connects itself in the form of the voluntative with this prefix; the voluntative presenting the action more strongly as at that point of time as it were only just commencing and willing to come, or describing the mere occurrence of an action at the time. Now since this imperfect, which in other respects corresponds to the Greek Aorist, must always be connected by the emphatic ánd with something already mentioned or supposed to be known, it is evident that, the force of the relative progression being put out of view, the perfect would take its place: but as

<sup>\*</sup> In Sanscrit, Greek, Armenian, Afghan. comp. Zeitschr. für d. K. des Morgenl. B. II. p. 304 f. In Hebrew this a— probably originates in ad, 18 § 103.

in nature all that was and is through the unceasing energy of motion and progress continually changes its form for ever new being, so in narrative each new event and progression (and so—, then—) changes\* the action, which of itself would stand in the perfect, suddenly into this inchoate tense, the imperfect; and upon on action of this kind another can immediately follow at every new advance of the thought without limit. And as manifold as the application of the perfect is, acc. § 135, so manifold is that of this its counterpart in each particular. In simple narrative: אַמֵּבֶּר וַיְהָּיִּה he spoke ánd (when he had spoken then) it came to pass; or of actions which at the time of speaking already plainly exist, but extend into the present in their effects: this one has come as a stranger שַּׁבְּיִּבּוֹ and judges (as we have seen) nevertheless! Gen. 19. 9; 31. 15; 2 Sam. 3. 8.

The shortening of all persons ending with the third radi-§ 232. cal may here on account of the stability of the first syllable be greater than in the voluntative, § 224; in the stong verb the end-syllable of Nif. may be toneless: אַנְהַבֶּהָן, also of Pi-el and Hithp. if a gutt. 'y has entirely given up the reduplication: אַנְהַבְּהַן; but in pause וַּלְּבָּהָן Nif., אַנְהַבָּרָן. In Hif. אַנְּבָּהָן, rarely in איל and אַנְּבְּהַן, ע 105. 28, with i. In gutt. 'לֹי וּרַבּרָן Pi-el.

From שם and similar roots acc. \$ 139 in Qal: וַיִּגֶּר ,וַיֵּגֵר , וַיֵּגֵר , וַיִּגֶר , וַיִּגְר ; in Hif. וַיִּינֶק , and also וַיִּאָרָיב , מחַיִּגֶּר , הַחִיצֶּר , הַחִיצֵּר ; once in Hithp. even יָאַרִיב from יָאַרִיב; once in Hithp. even יָאַרִיב ;

From "y and y"y in Qal: וְנַּמְם , in Hif. וְנַּמְם , וְנַּמְם , in Aif. מייִם אין in Qal: וְנַּמְם , in Hif. מייִן , in Hif. איין , in Hif. מייִן , in Hif. מייִן , in Hif. מייִן , in Hif. איין , in Hif. מייִן , in Part , in Pa

From ל"ה Nif.: וַיְּקְר , Pi. and Hithp. וַיִּקְר , in Qal primarily וַיִּקְר ; or rather, acc. \$ 33, וְנָּבֶּן וֹיִשְׁר , then וַיִּשְׁר , in Hif. primarily וַמְּעָר then וַמְּשָׁר , acc. \$ 32. From מוֹיִי at the

<sup>\*</sup> Hence Grammarians spoke of a Vav conversivum; and one might certainly to distinguish this Vav consecutivum from that simple one formed from it, \$ 348, speak of a Vav consec. convers., if this meaning were not already conveyed in the two names Vav consec. imperfecti and V. consec. perfecti, \$ 234.

same time: וַיִּישְׁ Qal; from וַיִּי פּדּנ or rather פּיִּי Qal; from וַיִּישׁ Qal; from וַיִּאָח (גַּיִּאָּח, גְּבִּיְאָהָ אָנְיִּאָר, acc. \$ 57, and with short á because in the verb. From הָּהָי, in Qal: וַהְּרָא in Qal: וַהְּרָא, in the third pers. masc. sing. still shorter וְיַּרְא, with which Hif. must coincide.

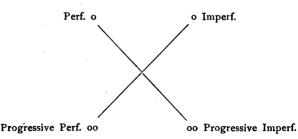
In the first person there is often a strengthening of the voluntative at the end. § 228: וְנַאְלֶּחָה, וְאָשֶׁלְחָה but the strengthening is wanting also, in which case the form fluctuates between the shortening and the retention of the full pronunciation: מאכתים or מאכתים in Hif.

Further, Val as Pi-el for Val, acc. § 83, should be noticed.

\$233. Only poets sometimes venture to use these short imperfs. without the prefix: \(\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\texts}\text{\text{then}}\) 18. 12. However, this imperf. stands elsewhere without augment but mostly with the same shortening after \(\text{\text{\text{then}}}\), I Kings 8. 1; Deut. 4. 41, \(\text{\text{\text{\text{U}}}\text{\text{then}}\) of time \(\psi\) 66. 6, and \(\text{\text{\text{\text{U}}}\text{\text{until}}\) (as donec pervenirem) \(\psi\) 73. 17.

Poets may also intentionally use this imperf. without the augment with simple 1 to bring before the mind more vividly the past or the present, especially in the first persons: Is. 10. 13; 43. 28; 48. 3; 51. 2; 57. 17: 63. 3—6; ψ 104. 32 b; 107. 26—29; Job. 22. 23—28, whilst the future in a similar manner is brought near as in flight by the unusual continuation of the simple imperf., Is. 5. 29 sq.; Job. 11. 9. One may therefore distinguish 1) the two simple tenses; 2) the two complex by the Vav of sequence; 3) the two absolute tenses derived from no. 2.

\$234. 2. The relatively progressive perfect. As in the previous combination the advance of time or thought has this effect that actions actually past or existing are looked on and described as only changing and coming into being, in this combination the effect is produced that that which is about to come to pass is presented as immediately and at once coming into existence, so that the simple tenses in this way beautifully intersect each other



comp. a similar interchange § 267 sq.; and in all the meanings in which acc. § 136 the imperf. itself, or also its abbrevia-

tion, the voluntative and imperative, would be used, the relative progress immediately brings in this perf. with the emphatic ánd or thén or so. And in this respect also this perf. is the opposite of the previous imperf., that it has the augment behind instead of before, and at least attracts the tone of the word towards the end instead of towards the beginning, as if the thén at the beginning of the word pointed into the past, and at the end, having become much weaker in sound, into the future. — Still even then this change of tone is no longer everywhere visible in the existing form of the Hebrew language, and is found only in the following faint traces:

- ו) The ending -tha of the second pers. masc. sing. and -thi of the first pers. sing. have the tone, yet without the dropping off of the pretone: יְבֹלְתוֹ from יִבְּלְתוֹ from יִבְּלְתוֹ ; still the tone remains very generally unchanged in the long vowels of ל"ח and א"ה, as too sluggish for change.
- 2) The ending ה— of the third pers. fem. sing. and -ŵ of the third plur. are generally accented if they have no tone in the simple perf., acc. \$ 193: יְנָחָה, הִיְנָחָה, הִיָּלָּה, .— But in pause everywhere יְנָחָה, הִיְנָחָה, הִיְנָחָה.
- 3) There are often with or without this change of the tone shorter vowels before, in Hithp. ז in the penultima: וְהַחְבַּרִּלְּחִי , וְהַחְבַּרִּלְּחִי , וְהַחְבַּרִּלְּחִי , וֹהְחְבַּרִּלְּחִי , in Hif. a instead of e before gutt. 'פּ: הְחַבְּרִּלְחִי , but rarely without the addition of a consonantal syllable at the end, וְהַבְּאַוֹי ; further from 'עִינּ בּיּרִבְּיִרְּחַיְּ. Sometimes the inserted vowel, \$ 197, drops off: בַּקְּמַחְיּ בּצֹר. 23. 22, Qal from מלל הוֹשִּבְּרִי Nif. from מלל בצרר צור עוֹשֵּבְרִי , בצרר עוֹשֵּבְּרִי . Even ישִׁבּר עוֹשְּבָּרִי שִּׁבְּרִי .
- 3. The relatively progressive voluntative presents the will \$235. and purpose to attain something as the sequence or design of a presupposition, answering to our in order that, the Latin ut with the conjunctive. But when the particle is prefixed to the voluntative it is just the simple ve—; and this combination is found usually after an imperative preceding: הַּרֶרְ וֹאַרַבְּרָה let be that I may speak! but any other sentence containing the idea of design may precede, thus even: It is good לו that he wait, לף. 1. 19; 3. 26; Ez. 1. 17; Lev. 15. 24; 26. 43. And as the imperative differs only in intensity from the voluntative, a progressive imperative also is possible, whenever the second person is used: that he may pray for thee in and

thou as I desire by that means livest, Gen. 20, 7; Ruth 1, 9; Job 11. 6.

The form TUNI that I may be rich is remarkable, Hif. § 73.

# 3) Infinitive construct and absolute.

- \$ 239. The infinitive presents the naked idea of the verb-stem without reference to person and time, and on that account contrasts with all personal, tense, and modal forms of the verb, asalso with the participle, which primarily presents a person to whom an action belongs and with whom it tarries. In Hebrew also the infinitive expresses the verbal meaning to a great degree stiffly, with no pliability, so that it cannot properly represent a complete substantive and, e. g., assume the article: the usage of the language, especially the poetical, endows only a few simple infinitives with this power, as דְּעָה knowledge, also with a verbal construction הַרַעָה אוְהִי τὸ בּעב בּוֹסׁבּׁיִמוּ Jer. 22. 16; elsewhere it is rarely found with the article. Still it is not in Hebrew so contracted and limited in its application as in Latin; it is found in various constructions, divides itself even by change of form into two different kinds:
- \$ 237. I. The infinitive is treated as a word capable of change and construction according to the combination of the words, and submits as a noun to the constructions of nouns: in this case it is in its primary character, and remains in its original form. This is met with
  - ו) after the stat. constr. of a noun or a preposition: בַּינּים «on the day of the making God» i. e. when God made man, לְבֵבֵּר in speaking—, לְבֵבֵּר to speak. If it is wished to indicate the time definitely, the sentence might be so arranged that the finite verb could be used; still the infinitive construction is in this case always more natural.
  - 2) If the infinitive after the manner of an accusative explains the reference of the preceding verb: יָרְעָהִי רַבֵּר novi logui, אם he hasted to come, or also
  - 3) may take the place of the subject of the sentence: לא מוכ הָּיוֹת הָאָרָם "not good is the being i. e. that the man should be alone.»

. When in these cases that which would be the subject with a finite verb cannot well be dispensed with, it is subordinated to this infinitive in the construct state, as עשות אלהים and in the preceding examples. But when the infin. neither stands in this way before a more complete although disconnected sentence, nor depends on a preceding st. c., in which cases it presents the verbal idea either more briefly and more dependently or more disconnectedly, it then frequently subordinates itself to the preposition ל, as חרל לצאח he ceased to go out. And this introduction of the inf. with to has become generally (as in modern languages) extremely prevalent; it is like a subordinate species of this inf., or like a special verbal mood in addition to the others, \$\$ 243-45. New idioms also have arisen from it: it is not to be done, i. e., one cannot or may not do something, even in the narration of what is past, Judg 1. 19, and it is to be done, i. e., one must or ought to do it, \$\psi\$ 32. 9; 49. 15.

Now when the inf. in the course of a sentence is joined, \$238. or at least according to the connexion can be joined with a preceding or a following noun, we have the inf. construct, inasmuch as it allows itself to be construed as a noun. Its form remains nearer to that of the verb, and arises from the imperfects of the different stems, acc. \$ 150, compared with \$\$ 138—142:

From אָלים, אור, קוֹם: ע"י, still there is here also at times this longer ô: מָבר, אוֹם, Num. 11, 25, with יָנָוּח; from יָנָיּר, מַבר, מ

From פ"ס, because the first radical is dropped, acc. \$ 228, always with the fem. ending: רְדָה Gen. 46. 3, elsewhere always with the pretone הַּנֶח, הַּנֶה, or rather in the st. c. רְּבֶּח

and מְּלֵהָ or instead מָּלָ, acc. § 80. — Likewise from מָלָה, הַּשָּׁה, נְּעַּה, נְּעָּה, נְּעָּה, נְתַּוֹן also occurs, and is always used if the imperf. still retains o נְגֹּרְ זְּלִּהְּ

The roots which can in this way drop their first radical in the inf. often form their abstract substantives from these infinitives in such a manner that the inf. passes into the st. absol. (§ 150): אַרָּה congregation, עובר counsel, שַּׁבָּר from עָּבָּר, ער יער יער, עד', or loses its feminine ending in poetry with the greatest lengthening of the vowel according to the new form § 153: עַּבּר knowledge אַיִּע or אַשְׁעַ caltation, root אַעַיַּגָּר,

2) In the remaining stems also the infinitive follows entirely the imperf., rarely augmented with the fem. ending: בַּקַבּ, Pi-el, very rarely as שַׁלֵּכְּח fem. Is. 6, 13; — הַּבְּק ע"ע Pi-el, very rarely as הַבְּק מִיע fem. Is. 6, 13; — הַבְּק ע"ע or (yet very rarely) הַבְּק מִיע fem. Hif., from הַבְּק הַבְּבָּם or הַבְּק הַבְּבָּם fem. Hof. acc. \$ 112, Hif. of passive from Hithp., \$ 132, with full passive vowels, comp. \$ 132.

Yet Hif. and Pi. sometimes retain the *i* of the perf. at the beginning, if the inf. is neither subject nor object, nor depends on a short preposition like - ; - ; - ; but assimilating more to the finite verb is subordinated to a preceding noun or a longer prepos.: עור הַשְּׁמִיר until destruction, i. e. until it be destroyed —, Lev.14. 43, 46, 48; Num. 21. 35; Deut. 7. 24; 28. 48, 55; Josh. 11. 14; 1 Chron. 8. 8: Jer. 31. 32; 50. 34; 51. 33.

3) The ל"ה retain only very rarely the e at the end, and then, acc. \$ 213. 3, as פֿ: הָּהָה Hif., הַּמָּה Pi. written for חַכֵּי Hos. 6. 9: the o from the active Qal is more frequent in these verbs as well in Qal as in all the other stems: רְאֹה Or Qal, הַרָאה Nif.; and this form has further mostly assumed the fem. ending ה (on account of its greater facilities for the suspension of suffixes, \$ 256. 3): רְאוֹח Pi. Yal הַּנְלֹח Nif., הַּנְלֹח Hif.

The last form is followed not only by the N" very frequently, but also by some other weak stems; the y"y especially assume in Qal at times ôth with a preceding: NIN, NIN, and in this respect uncertain 7 (active, to cast down) Is. 45. I.

\$239. In addition to these infinitive forms the language expresses their meaning by means of other abstract nouns also, generally in Qal, as אַנַייִל to help Hab. 3. 13; אַפַע to draw, root אָנַיַלָּאָ to help Hab. 3. 13; אָנַיִּע to draw,

and this contrary to § 160 with a short vowel; more rarely in the derived stems

- 2. The infinitive as inf. absolute is more inflexible and appears \$ 240. more disconnectedly in a sentence, sometimes as a pure exclamation, as הלוך to go! by which means also a peculiar kind of objective command is formed, Latin eundum est \$ 203; sometimes as a more complete explanation of the chief verb by means of additional remarks, or as a second, brief summary of the same verb, instances in which the gerund in -ndo might be used in Latin; very rarely merely as a subject or object, and then always without a preposition and other nominal constructions, Is. 7. 15 sq.; 42. 24; 8p. 3. 45. This inf. is never construed in a sentence as a noun, but has the full force of its verb, which it represents only more disconnectedly. In form therefore it originates from the foregoing inf. constr., of which it is only another stronger and more independent species; it is distinguished from the inf. construct by its fuller vowels and greater regularity.
- r) Qal: בְּחוֹב or בְּחוֹב with the pretone and long â, which appears in the half-passive verb also: בְּרוֹל From בְּרוֹב , בְּרוֹל From בְּרוֹב , בְּרוֹל From בּרוֹץ , יְרוֹת שׁוֹח , from שָׁהוֹר or oftener בְּרוֹב . The יִים and other stems with shortened first syllable present the full root again: בְּלֵרוֹת, בְּחוֹן, בְּחוֹן . . . .
- 2) In the remaining stems also this ô seeks entrance: יַפֹּר or יַפֵּר, סְבָּר, or מַנָּה Pi. Only Hif. never assumes it, but changes its î, acc. § 156, into the shorter בּ: אָרָהֶב, whilst this בּ appears in Hof. also: \* הָנֵּר, root אַנָּר.
- 3) Nif. can also take a new form with shorter vowels (or from the perf.), as גְּנְלֹה, נְנְלֹה; yet this is found primarily only if the inf. stands before the perf. of the same stem; as also אַנָּאָל Pi. in such a position 2 Sam. 12. 14.

<sup>\*</sup> But from an entirely different cause, that is because then through the strengthening, the i-e, which originally distinguishes the last syllable of the passive after the foregoing u-o, actually appears, as elsewhere only in trisyllabic passives, \$\$ 132, 238. 2.

An other noun takes the place of the inf. but very rarely: www. rejoice, root www, Is. 8. 6.

Notwithstanding the inflexibility belonging to this infinitive, certain words having this origin, after they have become adverbs, have again become flexible and have been used in every construction to which a stem-word is liable. So especially  $\pi_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \pi_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \pi_{\alpha}$  and then for this very word the inf. absol.  $\pi_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \pi_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{2} \pi_{\alpha}$  is formed afresh.

# 3. DEPENDENT PARTICLES.

# 1) Prefixes.

- S 241. Many little words in themselves too dependent and weak to stand alone are supported as prefixes to other more substantive and stronger words: the article 77, \$ 181, the prepositions and conjunctions, \$\$ 217, 222, the interrogative and negative particles; possibly also the smaller interjections, as 150 woe to him!, acc. \$ 101, Ecc. 4. 10. If a negation though standing alone is intelligible at least as an answer, as 150 not! (i. e. No!), still the remaining particles have become wholly dependent and inseparable, and are, if shortened to a single full (i. e., still spoken with a full vowel) or imperfect (i. e., vowelless) sound, in writing always connected with the following word.
- \$242. The prep. אָבְּצְּים, always assimilates its -n to the consonant: אָבִּלָּם, but retains the short vowel only sometimes, acc. § 69, before the hardest guttural הוות בשְרָם, and sometimes allows its -n to vanish without any trace if the following consonant has only a Sh'va: מְבְצִיר, אָבִיר, אָבִיר, אָבְיר, אָב
- \$243. The three prepositions בְּ, לְּ, and the copula יְ retain
  - ו) their Sh'va before a consonant with a full vowel, but the j becomes the full vowel j before a labial, acc. § 53, וֹסִילְכוּן. However, in favourable instances all assume the a of the pretone before a word having the tone in the first syllable, that is
  - a) on account of the fuller tone, if such a word is more closely connected with a preceding one of a similar meaning,

so that the two together make up a small member of a sentence: דוֹר וְדֹר generation and generation, וְקֹר וְחוֹם and cold and heat Gen. 8. 22; more rarely if the word stands before a greater pause without this connexion.

The three prepositions displace the aspirate of the article, \$244. on account of their closer conjunction, especially in the older writers: לְהַבֶּהְ , לְהַבָּהְ , לַהַבְּהָ , לַהַבְּהָ , but often עּלְהַבָּה , since בְּ easily partakes of an adverbial character. — The ה added to the root in the infs. of Hif., Nif. and Hithp. on the other hand rarely falls away after בְ, more frequently after לִהְחַי for יְהָהַי Hif. comp. \$ 192.

2) Before a consonant without a full vowel they assume i,\$245. acc. \$ 24, in which case only לְּבְּחָבׁת before the inf. forms a close-compound syllable: לְבְּחָבׁת בְּבְּחָבׁת ; but i resolves itself into its own natural vowel, acc. 1): בְּבְּחָבׁת if the word begins with so that this letter can become forthwith a pure vowel i, acc. \$ 42, i also retains its consonantal force before it: בְּבִּיה, but if it begins with a guttural, and therefore, acc. \$ 59, with a rapid vowel, the vowel of each of the four prefixes becomes the same as that of the rapid vowel, e. g., יְׁ or i before בּוֹבְּתַרִּים close-combetons.

Words like עָרָים from וְּחִיה , וְהְייִהְם (and live ye!) וְחִיה (and live thou!) find their explanation from § 65; הְשַׁשַה, Lev. 26. 43, inf. Hof. with fem. ending, root בְּיה where the o has pushed itself under the prefix, is explained from §§ 112, 131.

In certain common words א surrenders entirely its guttural force: אֵלְהִים in God, בֵּאלֹהִים to God, therefore also in the counter-tone מָאמֹר (and the Lord) acc. § 75; is used just as an adverb to introduce a discourse, Latin sailicet.

### 2) SUFFIXES.

\$ 246. Little words that depend on words behind them for support seek a substantive word on which to lean. But the Hebrew has not many of these. To them belongs בָּא, lit. now, as a particle expressing entreaty, as quaeso or -dum, Germ. doch, our now; on the other hand the composite אַגָּא, oh now! from אָּמּא, \$ 101, stands at the commencement of an entreaty. Also אוֹם, then, used in animated questions and impatient demands, generally depends on a word behind it:

But beside these, only the personal pronouns, when they are subordinated by the meaning, depend as unsubstantive particles reflexively on other words; and they have coalesced into one word with the principal word (wherefore usually they only are called suffixes): and since the language used in this instance at least the facilities these particles presented for distinguishing certain differences of dependence and independence in a sentence, peculiar forms have established themselves here from the earliest times, which in their sphere retain more faithfully much that elsewhere in the language is well nigh lost.

\$247. The suffix when attached to the verb denotes, acc. \$207, the accusative of the corresponding personal pronoun; but two accusatives governed by one verb, \$122, cannot in Hebrew be appended as suffixes to the same verb; and the

suffix cannot refer to the person that is the subject of the verb. On the other hand, the suffix when attached to a noun denotes, acc. § 211, our genitive of the corresponding personal pronoun, instead of which we can also use pronominal adjectives (so called possessive pronouns): "

\*\*Pater mei = meus.\*\*

The pronoun is generally affixed in both cases in the same way, but to the noun as a rule somewhat more closely and more concisely, inasmuch as the connexion of the construct state generally is closer than that of the accusative. In the annexation it essentially retains always the tone of the whole word (quite unlike § 193), and is never annexed immediately, but properly by means of a union-vowel (a)-e-(i), § 250, to the final consonant of the word: if a suffix gradually loses the tone, the tone in the next place withdraws to the union-vowel and accents that: 13—, and if the word ends with a strong immoveable vowel, this vowel, acc. § 45, displaces the accented or unaccented union-vowel and itself receives the tone, save that suffixes which remain firmly a closed syllable do not lose the tone even then. Accordingly the suffixes take the following forms:

- ו) In the third pers. the masc. sing.: אֹדִי, in the noun rarely אַדִּי, usually contracted, acc. § 43, into אֹדִי, or oftener written וויי, but contraction is not possible in the coincidence of -i-hu, which can be shortened only by the expulsion of the breathing into -îv, nor in the coincidence of -u-hu, which on the ground of audibleness cannot be shortened. The fem. sing.: אַדָּי constantly written so for dha, sometimes אַדְּי without Mappiq, i. e., with softening of the guttural; in the verb fuller also אָדִּי in pause, usually contracted into אַדְּי also in poetry אַדְּי in pause, usually contracted into אָדָי also in poetry אָדָי בּוֹלְי or אַדְּיִי (in pause 1 Kings 7.37): usually contracted into אָדָי הַ or אַדְּיִי mostly frequently shorter בּוֹל in the verb frequently shorter בּוֹל or contracted into אַדְּיִי in pause 1 Kings 7.37):
- 2) In the second person the suffix is always  $\supset$  for  $\sqcap$ ,  $\S$  184, serving to distinguish clearly the subordinate pronoun from the substantive one. From this the masc. sing.:  $\lnot$  with Sh'va instead of a union-vowel, more rarely written  $\rightrightarrows$ —; it has the tone, though under certain conditions it loses it; in pause, e. g.,  $\lnot$ —, once  $\rightrightarrows$ —, Ex. 29. 35, and then also  $\lnot$  especially with particles:  $\lnot$ —; (in thee),  $\lnot$ —; (to thee). The fem. sing.:  $\lnot$ —, but this ful-

ler form is Aramaic rather, and usually זְּ ... , in pause sometimes longer זְ ... , The plur. masc. and fem. , בְּנָה , rarely יְבָּיָה, rarely יִבְּיָה, constantly with the tone: here the union-vowel is compressed into the weakest germ of a vowel.

3) In the *first* person the sing. is ייַ or ייַ, fully retained in the verb only, in the noun always shortened to יי; the plur.

"", with a noun only in pause) and ייי, the plur.

Accordingly these three distinctions must be observed: 1) Suffixes which begin without a full vowel, that is אָבֶּי, וְבֶּי, וְבֶּי, וְבֶּי, with a guttural the Sh'wa changes into the rapid vowel, acc. § 59, as אָבָּי, בְּיִלְּיָאָרֶּבֶּי, בְּיִבְּי, וְבָּי, וְבָיִי, בְּיִבְּי, וְבָיִי, וְבָיִי, וְבָיִי, וְבָיִי, וְבָי, which can never lose the tone; — 3) the constantly toneless, יוֹבְיי, and אַבִּי, and אַבָּיי.

# The verb with suffixes.

- 1. When the suffixes come into conjunction with the persons of the verb, the ending ה, of the fem. sing. of the third pers. perf. assumes its harder form -āth, acc. § 173, yet the a seeks to retain the tone and to draw the th only to itself, as if this were a kind of vowel-ending: hence the suffixes -âm and ekh become toneless: בְּחַבְּחַה, הְּחַבְּחַה; similarly הַּחָבְּחַה, § 79: also for הַּחַבְּחַה often in pause especially בְּחַבְּחָה. The person-endings closing with consonants are diminished before suffixes to vowel-endings, especially is the ending of the second plur. perf. בּחַבַּח of the second fem. הַה likewise, acc. § 177; also הַה of the second fem. sing. perf. often returns to הַה; and the ending of the ending of the masc. ז is used.
- § 249. The difference of vowels in the two tense-forms strives to establish itself here also, since

  - $\delta$ ) in the same way the suffix  $\Box$  and  $\uparrow$  of the third pers. plur. in the imperf. often changes to  $\Box$  and  $\uparrow$ , and reversely

the suffix  $\overline{\eta}$  of the second pers. fem. sing. in the perf. change into  $\overline{\eta}$ . The imperative follows the imperfect here as everywhere.

The vowel which is here briefly called the union-vowel, was originally when before the suffixes of the noun the vowel of the stat. constr., § 211, when before the suffixes of the verb the vowel of an accusative sign, in its full form en, related to the now, § 207. A clearer trace of this n has been retained: where the n can stand before the suffix in the tone it often appears closely interlaced with it: hence in the first per sing. \(\frac{1}{2} - \text{or of tener } \frac{1}{2} But poets, loving more sonorous forms, use not only the suffixes uncontracted: יְבַבְּרֵנְיִי (pause) he will honour me, יְבַרְנָנִי he will bless him, and load the toneless suffixes with this n attaching it to the vowel-endings of the persons of the verb: יְבַּרְנִינִי they will serve thee (fem.), יְבַבְּרֵנִי ye brank me in pieces, but insert the n even before the constantly accented suffix -ô (from áhu): יִבְּבֵּרְנִי they will catch him, יִבְּבַרְנָנִי , imper. Qal, curse him from a פּבִּרִנְיִנְיִי pause) him from a יִבְּרֵבְנִיי יִבְּרֵבְנִיי אַרָּרָנְנִיי ...

- 2. Since a new accented syllable arises through the suffixes, \$251. or at least a previously unaccented syllable becomes accented, the verb as to its vowels suffers the following changes, in addition to the effects of the general laws, which produced similar results in \$199 sq.
- 1) In the perf. Qal the stem-vowel remains before the full and strong syllable of the suffixes acc. \$ 87—89, and becomes long indeed in a simple syllable, whilst the pretone vowel disappears: בַּחָבָּנִי, also בָּחָבָּרָ, but compressed before the heavy suffix: בַּחָבָּנִה.

without dissolving the close mass of double-consonants: יְמָבֶּרְּ from יַמָבֹּר.

In a remarkable way the o of the last syllable of the imperf. Qal, either displaced or disturbed, at times projects itself towards the beginning of the word: אַלְבְּרָם (thou wilt serve them) from אַבְּרָם Ex. 20. 5; 23. 24; Deut. 5. 9; 13. 3; אַבְרָף (the has thee for a friend) from בּחַיַ ψ 94. 20, even אָבְוּי (may he be gracious to thee) from אָרָן root אָבָר

- 3) The imper. Qal constantly projects the o to the first radical: מַבְּלָהוּ פָּתְבֹּם on account of the guttural, from הַבְּלָהוּ on the other hand a is retained, acc. \$ 87, in its place as pretone: הַּאַרָּבָּוּ, also הַּאָרָנּוּ, אָבֶּרָרָ, pace. \$ 227, but הְּבָּרַהְ, הַּבְּרָהַ, הָּשִׁעְנִיּ
- \$253. The suffix is rarely appended toneless to a guttural as to a vowelending: מַנְיִים break them! imper. Qal; אָבְייִם take them now! In אָבִייִּם I would water thee! (fem.) from Pi-el אָבִייִּם the á of the vol., \$ 228, which otherwise is entirely wanting here, shows itself, so that I separates the two vowels.

#### THE NOUN WITH SUFFIXES.

- \$ 254. The noun stands before the suffix properly in the stat. constr.: yet since it constantly forms with the suffix but one word, it can also, as far as the laws of the tone permit this, return to the fuller pronunciation which is peculiar to the stat. abs. before the externally similar endings for gender and number, \$\$ 177, 185 sq., and also here and there elsewhere allows a somewhat fuller pronunciation, \$ 260.
- \$ 255. I. Of the nouns without endings for gender or number
  - ו) the simple ones of the first form return to their original state: מֵלְכֵּך, מָלְכֵּך, yet instead of š the š of the words without suf-

- 3) The nouns with a vowelless first radical can promote the short or merely tone-long vowel of the second radical to the first: שֹׁבְים, וֹשְׁבְשׁ, וֹבְשׁיִ , הַבְשׁי, מבכ. § 147; further the inf. Qal שִׁבְּשִׁ from בְּקֹעֵם ;לְּי, although the o is often lost in gutt. יִּבְּשִׁ from בְּקֹעָם ;לְּי, although the o is often lost in gutt. בְּקֹעִם :לִי from בְּקֹעָם :לִי Before the Sh'va the short vowel can remain in its place or move forward, whence o sometimes appears reduplicated: עַמִּיךְ , חֲנִנְבֶם from בְּקַבְּהַ מְּמִיבְּרָ, מְשִׁבְּי, מְשֹׁבְּ and with בְּיִבְּבָּם, acc. § 63, from עֲבִילָּר, מְשֹׁבְּ לְּרָבִם from בְּאָבְּ מָלִים בּרָבם from בְּאָבְ בָּרָבם This rarely occurs in an inf. Hif. from תָּבְּרַבם :עִישׁ from הַבּּרָבם.

With the vowel termination

**§** 256.

1) of the word אָבי, \$ 213, and the names of kindred אָבִּי \$ 211, this i coalesces with the i of the suffix of the first pers. sing.: אָבִי, פָּרָד, swallows up the vowel or Sh'va with which may suffixes begin: אָבָּי, פָּרָד, קִּפָּר, unites itself with the suffix of the

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third pers., the ה of which can remain, by means of this: פָּיהָם, פָּיהָם or יְּפָּיה (his mouth) and almost always אָבִיו (his father). — From פְּיה אָבִינֶם אָבִינֶם אָבִינֶם אָבִינֶם פּּרִים, שְּבִינֶם is פְּרִים, שְּבִינֶם also פְּרִים, שְׁבִינֶם is allowable.

- 2) The ending é of the אָל ה' may be displaced as in the verb, \$ 252: ילָּה from לֵּהְ from לֵּהְ, is retained however especially in the substantive and before the longer suffixes still more frequently than in the verb, but then closely coincides externally with the ending of the plur. before suffixes, \$ 258: מַרְאָהָ (their form), מַרְנֶּהָ (your cattle), מַלְנֶהֶ (thy work) from מֵלְנֶהָ (his milarly בַּלְהָה, בִּלְהָה, בּלָה, בָּלְהָה, אָרָה, וֹבְלָה, בָּלְהָה, וֹבְלָה, בָּלְהָה, אָרָה, אָר
- 3) אַשְּהוּ once Ex. 18. 18 from the old inf. אָשֶׁה, \$ 238, for אָשֶׁה, (to do it).
- \$ 257. 2. To n— of the st. c. of the fem. sing. the suffix is appended so that a remains before it as pretone (when this is possible): מלכתב , מלכתה, מלכתה The feminines which have toneless ה in the st. c., § 211, append the suffix as to a noun of the first form; and if in that case é—ě is already very frequent in the st. abs., this  $\dot{\epsilon}$  is treated entirely as in מֵלֵה, i. e., sometimes a and sometimes i can appear before these accented affixes, apart from their origin: יְבְּמָהוֹ (his sister-in-law) from the masc. אַיָּבָהוֹ, אַיָּבָהוֹ (his enemy) from the masc. אֵיֵבֶּם, fem. וְבָּטֶּח; a on the other hand remains constantly if it rarely becomes é—ě in the st. abs.: ממלכהו from מְמַלְכָה rarely מְמָלְכָה in st. abs., e remains from the stem בָּחַב \$ 149: שָׁבֶנְחוֹ and in the inf. Pi-el: צַרְקְחָהְ, also in שָׁבֶנְחוֹ (his going) inf. Qal from קלק; and i remains if an i in the masc. answers to it: ברחז § 187. Those in  $\dot{e} - \check{e}$  always show i or e, those in  $\delta' - \check{e}$ which have an original u often show this u: נָחָשָׁהוּ, קְטַרָהוּ, אָשָׁהִיּי, from אָשֶׁת, קְטְרָת, קְטְרָת, From הַשָּ, \$ 186. ו: בָּחָדְ, הָפּחָד ; from אָמֶת \$\$ 68, 166, 179: אַמחוּ.
- \$258. 3. The vowel termination -ae of the st. c. plur. and du. combines, acc. \$43, the -i of the suffix of the first sing. with itself, forming di, likewise the ק היים of the second fem. sing., forming קֹבוּשֵׁירֶב (Aramaic לְבוּשֵׁירָ , לְבוּשֵׁירָ , לְבוּשֵׁירָ , לְבוּשֵׁירָ , לְבוּשֵׁירָ , מוֹבוּשֵׁירָם , לְבוּשֵׁירָם , לִבוּשֵׁירָם , מוֹבוּשֵׁירָם , לִבוּשֵׁירָם , and

connects itself with the suffix of the third pers., the ה of which can remain, by means of this: לְבוֹשֵׁיהוּ, but in the masc. sing. of this person usually so expels the aspirate that -av is spoken instead of aev, acc. \$ 43: לְבוֹשִׁיהוּ, and shortens the accented ae to é before ה בח מחלים (since these acc. \$ 247 are toneless לְבוֹשֵׁיה): although here the of the pl. is usually retained in writing.

And since the majority of these suffixes append no entirely new accented syllable, the plur. before them has the same vowels as if the plural-ending -im only were appended, \$\$ 186—9, whilst before the long suffixes through which the word becomes longer by an accented syllable, בַּלְבָיהַם, בּיַבָּם, as מֵלְבֵיהָם so מֵלְבֵי so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִּי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מֵּלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מִלְבִי so מִלְבִי so מֵּלְבִי so מֵלְבִי so מִלְבִי so מִלְבִי so מִּלְבִי so מִּלְבִי so מִלְבִי so מִבְּיי so מִבְּיִי so so מֵלְבִי so מִבְּיִבְי so מִב

Only a word constantly used in the st. c. plur. like The happiness! Happy art thou!, acc. § 179, retains the vowels of the st. c. before the short suffix also.

The very much shortened מֵי מֵּנ c. from מֵימֵ water, \$ 178, is reduplicated before suffixes, acc. \$ 109: מִימֵי but is rarely in the st. c. without a suffix.

4. In this same form the suffixes are appended to the plural-\$ 259. ending -oth, \$ 177: יבותו , comp. \$ 211. 2, although with this ending the simpler forms ב and ב are often found for היה and יה . Sometimes this longer kind of suffix is transferred to the ending הו of abstracts \$ 165, the ending -ôth of the infinitives from ל , and the ending of the fem. sing. after ל , Num. 14. 33; Ez. 6. 8; \$\psi\$ 9. 15.

In addition to the cases cited sometimes a tone-long vowel is retained \$ 260. before the endings of the plur. and sing. fem. and also of the plur. masc. and before the suffix even the lighter one, which does not remain in the simple st. c.; so יַבְבוֹ (my corpse) as well as יֹבְילָם! (my corpse) as well as יַבְּלָּם! (my corpse) has in the st. c. הַבְּלִים! (tunica), \$ 155, pl. הווים! has in the st. c. הַבְּלָם! (my corpse) and הַבְּלָם! (tunica), st. c. יַבְּלָם! (viscera), יִבְּלָם! (viscera), אַרָּהְנִים! (his ways), acc. § 60 for יֹבְלָּב!

The participle and the infinitive may take the verbal suffixes \$ 261. in as far as they follow more closely the verb in sense, but as nouns strictly speaking the nominal suffixes also, as videns me and אָלִי; yet the nominal suffixes are necessary, to prevent any

<sup>\*)</sup> The Aramaic 'ii only \$\psi\$ 116. 12.

ambiguity also, if they with the infinitive should denote the agent, as לְמַעֵּן הַרְּחִי אָחְכָם on account of my driving you forth, that I might drive etc. It is amongst later writers that this law begins to be neglected.

# 3) Combination of prefixed and affixed particles.

# Particles with suffixes.

\$ 262. However weak in itself a prefixed or a suffixed particle is, yet a firm word is formed by their reciprocal combination and conjunction, since the one supports the other; as אַר ס חסיש from the weak interjection אָל נָא , \$ 101, and אַל —, \$ 246; אַל do not now / \$ 320. But the frequent combination of particles which constantly require a complement immediately to follow them, with suffixes especially belongs here:

הַּיֵּה Latin en, subordinates to itself the same suffixes, acc. § 206, which elsewhere with the verb denote the accusative: הננו en eum! he is there! and has further this peculiarity that it more than usually enlivens the suffixes of the first person by accenting them: הָנֵנוּ, הִנְנֵי, but in pause הָנֵנוּ, הִנְנֵי.

The particles אין existence of—, i. e., there is, אין אין is yet—, stand properly in the st. c., acc. § 209. 3, and accordingly require, considered strictly as nouns, nominal suffixes, but since they very frequently serve as predicates, as a sort of incomplete verb, whilst at the same time they supply a subject, in this sense they often subordinate to themselves the longer form of the verbal suffixes, as verbs and the similarly used הוב הוא מיה הוב I am not; אינני ביי where? follows these, although for אינני מארבי מים מים אינני (he is), in pause אינני איני אינני ינני אינני אינני אינני אינני אינני איני איני איני איני אינני איני  263. Some longer prepositions also begin to assume the verbal suffixes, i. e., to subordinate instead of the genitive more carelessly

the accusative: מַרְבִי under her, מַחְבוּרָי sub me, בַּעַרְבִי around me. This is universally the case with זָם, the very weak -n (§ 242) of which has assimilated to the inserted -n, § 250, before the lighter suffixes, but in such a way that the preposition is doubled before it: מַבְּנִי from me, מַבְּנִי from him, whilst poets sacrifice this reduplication for a new extension of the prose form: מַנָּהוֹ from him, or for a new form from the full מְנִּהוֹ from me, מַבְּהַ ; all this of course does not concern the longer suffixes: מַבָּהַ מָבָּהַ, מַבְּהַם,

In the accusative particle אוֹא, \$ 207, the distinction between \$ 264. the light and the heavy suffixes is so established that the original ô remains before the first: אַרְאָר, אוֹתְּא, but before the second is shortened to e, acc. \$ 38, whenever they begin with a consonant, as is the case also when the particle stands before another word: אַרְּהֶּבֶּ (for which אַרְּהָב is more frequent in prose), אַרְּהָב (for which אַרְּהָב is more frequent in prose), אַרְּהָב (with, \$ 217 c, subsequently the form with o become prevalent for this preposition: אַרְּהַב אוֹתְּךְּ

Since the relative particle מו (בּקנוֹם מְּמֹס) can of itself ex-\$ 265. press any relation of one noun to another, and poets also use מוֹן and מֹן for the short prepositions בְּמֹח בָּקְי, פְּמִיבְּם especially serves even in prose for בָּקָ, \$ 221, before all lighter suffixes; poets have also בַּמֵח בַּקָּב.

With particles the a of the pretone is also more frequent: בְּבֶּבֶּי, בְּבֶּבֶּי (from שֵׁע with, or otherwise longer vowels: בְּבֶּבֶּי (never בְּבָּבֶּי (from בַּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבּבּי (from בּבּבּי (from בּבּבּי (from בּבּבּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּבּי (from בּבְבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְבּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְּבָּי (from בּבְבּי (

Traces of a plural in prepositions are found in אַחָב, and \$ 266. חַחָה: אַחֲבִי, הַּחְהָּת, אַחֲבִי, etc., although הַּחְהָּה also occurs for הַּחְהָּה.

שנין between is used in the plural only when its suffix also has a plural meaning: בּינִי וּבֵינִיבָם between me and you.

On the other hand, אָר אָלר אָלר, \$ 217. b. d, for which the more original forms עָרֵי אָלֵי are still found in poetry, assume the apparently plural suffixes only according to \$ 256. 2.

# APPENDIX TO THE FORMATION OF THE NOUN.

#### THE NUMERALS.

\$267. אָחָר one, originally אַחַר (thence in an Aramaic form אַקּר Ez. 33. 30) for which acc. \$ 59 אַקּר, which also often occurs still in continuous discourse, then with the final vowel lengthened אַקּר, \$ 70; st. c. אַאַר, fem. אַקּר for אַקר, acc. \$ 80, in pause אַקּר.

The word has the force of an adjective, but like the other numerals, acc. § 209. 3, can be considered as an incomplete noun and so at least be subordinated even in the construct state to a preceding noun, as now ark, Lev. 24. 22; 2 Kings 12. 10; Is. 36. 9.

שְׁלֵיִם with the selided, § 79, (but שְׁלֵיִם from two, Jud. 16. 28 without Dag. lene in the ה on account of the previous reduplication), st. c. שׁלֵי, fem. שׁלֵי, fem. שׁלֵי, fem. שׁלֵי, fem. שׁלֵי, fem. שׁלֵי, לְּאָמִים two nations, fem. שׁלֵי לְאָמִים two women; more closely connected with a definite noun it denotes our both: שׁלֵי, both of us, שׁלֵי, both nations.

The numerals from 3—10 are primarily nouns of multitude, and therefore as collectives, \$ 179, have the ending of the fem. sing., and are construed in the st. c.: אַלְשָׁה בָּנִים sons, lit. trias filiorum; but since they partake more and more of a merely adverbial character, and are placed before the chief word without any close connexion, as שֵׁלשָׁה בָּנִים שָׁלשָׁה three sons, or may be placed after it even, as הַנִּים שְׁלשָׁה, in them

the distinction of gender follows this rule, that their primary form, i. e., that with the feminine ending, is appropriated for the primary gender, i. e., the masc., whilst, on the other hand, they may reject this ending for the fem.: אַלָּשׁ בָּנוֹת three daughters, although sometimes אַלָּשׁ בְּנוֹח also is found.

The list is:

	stat. abs.	stat. c.	stat. abs.	stat. c.
3	שׁל <b>שַה</b>	שׁלִשַּׁת	שַׁלש	שׁל <i>ש</i>
4	אַרְבָּעָת	אַרְבַּעַת	אַרַבַע	
5	חַמְשַּׁה	ກຊື່ວິບັ	ລຸຕິບີ	הַמִשׁ
6	חשַּׁשִּׁי	ששת	שׁשׁ	
7	שָׁבְעַה	שׁבָעַת	שֶׁבַע	שָׁבַע
8	שׁמנה	עמנת	שְׁמֹנֵוֶה	
9	תשעה	הָשָׁעַת	רַשַע	הָשַע
10	<b>ָּעֲשֶׁ</b> יָרָה	אַ שֶׁרֶת	רַ עֶּׁעֶּ	

If one of these numbers even comes to be used quite independently as a neuter, the proper numeral serves for this purpose, acc. § 172, in the fem. or in the masc. also, Prov. 30. 18, 21.

The *tens* are expressed by the plural of the numbers from 3—10, without distinction of gender, or further formation: אַרְצָעִים 30, שִׁלְעִים 50, שִׁבְעִים 60, שִּׁבְעִים 70, שִּׁבְעִים 80, שַּׁבְעִים 90, but אַרְבָּעִים is used for 20.

מַאָח 100, fem. from מַאַיָּה acc. \$ 186, st. c. מַאַח, dual מַאַרוּס, for מָאָר, \$ 73, plur. st. abs. and c. מָאַרוּס, \$ 73, plur. st. abs. and c. אַלְפָּים מּטּרוּס. פּרּכ. אַלְפָּים מּטּס. מַלְפָּים 2000, plur. אַלְפָּים בּיס מּטָר. בּיַבָּה masc. 1000, dual אַלְפָּים. — The fem. רְבָּבָה, subsequently רְבָּבָה, \$ 165, came gradually to stand for 10,000.

In the construction of the units with the tens, according \$268. to the simplest order, the former are placed first without an and, but then both words form a kind of inseparable compound (as sedecim, quindecim), in which the subordinate word, i. e., the ten, in a remarkable way follows the gender of the unit, that is, without feminine ending אַשָּׁעָ after those units which, acc. \$ 267, in comformity with the sense are used as masc., but with a weak feminine ending אַשִּׁרָה after those

which are used as in sense fem.; and since this compound numeral is inflexible, i. e., cannot stand in the construct state before another noun, such constructions arise as שַׁלשָׁה עָשָׁר 13 sons, אַשְּׁלְהַה בָּנוּח 13 sons, אַשְּׁרֵה בָּנוּח 13 daughters. The units have constantly the st. c. when they have no ending; and the punctation is always שְׁבִּים עָשָּׁר 12, masc., ישִׁשְּׁר 12, fem. somewhat shorter with -aem (ae) for -aim. For the first member of עַשְּׁהֵר 11, masc. and אַשְּׁרֵה 11, fem., עַשְּׁהַר 11, fem., יעַשְּׁהַר 11, salso met with.

In the combination of the units and the tens from 20 upwards the smaller number can precede or follow, but *and* is always put between them; it is the same in the combination of the hundreds with lower numbers; but the thousands generally precede.

\$269. Derived numeric words are especially the following:

- 1) The numeral adjectives, formed by the ending -î, \$ 164, but in 3—10 in such a way that the î of the adjective uniformly appears also in the preceding syllable: אַלִּישִׁי third, appears also in the preceding syllable: יְבִישִׁי third, fourth, יְבִישִׁי or חֲׁמָשִׁי sixth, יְבִישִׁי seventh, שְׁמִינִי fourth, יְבִישִׁי tenth; from יַּשְׁנִים acc. \$ 115, second, plur. שְׁמִירִי minth, שְׁקְדֶּר unus in enumerations from 1 upwards is clearly = first also: in other cases רְאשׁוֹיִם foremost, first is used. Numeral adjectives are not derived from the numbers higher than 10, so that the simple numerals must be used for them also, \$ 287.
- 2) The dual of the numerals 3—10 expresses reduplication, and thence manifoldness from unity, the force of our fold, and thence manifoldness from unity, the force of our fold, four-times, that is, four-times together instead of once.
- 3) The word time (פַּעַם) fem., of time also plur. אָרוּת and מֹנִים is either added, as יְרֶנְלִים three times, thrice, or the numeral is used alone in the feminine, i. e., the neuter: מַבְּע one time, once, שַּׁקְים 2 times, twice, שַׁבְּע ז times, הַיָּם in the st. c. \$ 204. 2, or מַאָּה in pause, 100 times.

#### COMPOSITION.

Composition as it exists in the Indo-European languages \$ 270. is sometimes met with in the few words which, according to the law of the incomplete nouns, \$ 209. 3, combining in this composition but at the same time with new meaning, are used as simple substantives or adjectives: בּלְיּמֵל not-high, thence lowness, badness, ruin; in poetry בּלִימָה not-what, i. e., nothing, Job 26. 7; אוֹ אל the not-god, no-god, אוֹ אַלְּמֵה immortality. Of composition in the case of two equal words there is the example: a sword אוֹם בּיֹבּים of point-points, i. e., of many points, where the plural ending embraces both compound nouns.

In another way two words may be joined together most closely both in sound and writing which are always connected in thought, \$ 268, especially in proper names, as בְּנְיָמִין, lit. Jamin's son, but this is an accidental coalescence. The great abbreviation of many such proper-names should be observed: מַּלְּמָיִה, from יְּהָוֹלָּמִי (strong is God), מְשֵׁלֶמִי, or still shorter יְּהָוֹלָמִי, from יְּהַיְּלָּמִי (Jahve rewardeth); the name Jahve is abbreviated when it is the first member into דְּהָיִ or דִּיּ, acc. \$ 72, when it is the last, into בְּיִבְּיִ and this further into בּיִבְּיִ and יִּיִבְּיִ and יִּיִבְּיִ and יִּיִּ as בִּיִּרִי and יִּיִבְיִּים בּיִּרְ מִּיִּ מִּיִּ בְּיִּבְּיִים בּיִּרְ מִּיִּים בּיִּרְ מִּיִּים בּיִּרְ מִיִּים בּיִּרְ מִיִּים בּיִּבְּיִים בּיִּרְ בִּיִּים בּיִּרְ בִּיִּים בּיִּרְ בִּיִים בּיִּרְ בִּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בְּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִּים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִּים בּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִּים בְּיִים בְּיבְים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְי

There is further no proper composition if of two relative particles, which together form one idea, the smaller one comes gradually to stand first, as לבר מו is used, Jos. 17. 5; 22. 29, as of equal meaning for מבר ממידי from—, besides—.

Examples of one adjective explaining itself by an other (a kind of composition) are: בְּלֵוְ אֲרַלְּבוֹ white reddish, which two words, however, stand both in the fem. Lev. 13. 19, and בַּבִּיר צַּוְדִיק the Great-Righteous, (i. e., God), Job. 34. 17).

#### THE PROPER NAMES OF THE OLD LANGUAGE.

The proper-names form a specially large class of nouns, which in § 271. reference to their original meaning are in general still very clear in Hebrew, but present much that is peculiar, since many of them go back into far earlier times. We confine ourselves here to the names of men.

- \$ 272. I. The oldest are many of them simple, as אָן Judge, אָנוְל Dexter. אָנְעָל Fox, of men; בְּשִׁבְּע, הְנִילְל acc. § 173, Jucunda, of women; comp. § 162.
- § 274. 2. Whilst the worship of Jahve, i. e., the higher religion, became continually more prevalent, very many new proper-names were formed by composition with the higher divine name Jahve, § 270. And all such compound proper-names, § 273 sq., might be transferred unaltered to women also, since the language here exhausted its formative resources in some such way as εὐδαίμων and all similar compound adjectives in Greek are used for the feminine gender also.
- \$275. 3. In the last centuries before Christ the formation of proper-names for men gradually exhausted itself, and a few of the old, indeed, the oldest names came to be so much the more frequently used.

# THIRD PART. SYNTAX

# A. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A sentence is composed of a person, § 171, as the chief§276. word and the predicate in reference to it; or, in other words, it is the intelligible combination of subject and predicate as the two essential and equally substantive members of the sentence, in whatever form and of whatever compass these two essential parts may be: אַני יַהְוּה I am Jahve, אַני יַהְּוֹה he is righteous, אַני יַהְּוֹה he or impersonally it is said, אָנִי הַוּה it will be said. If one of these two essential members is absent, there is an incomplete sentence, § 327 sq.: but besides them yet other members may be added in subordination to them. And, therefore, since each of the two essential members as well as each of the other possible parts, can be extended to longer or shorter groups of words,

# 1. THE CONSTRUCTION AND FORCE OF SINGLE GROUPS OF WORDS AS MEMBERS OF A SENTENCE

must be further explained. Of these there are three chief classes: but almost universally it makes in each a great difference whether the noun in question is a

# definite or indefinite noun.

Every noun, and every pronoun, must in its place in a \$277. sentence have the force of either a definite or an indefinite

one; and a noun may always be raised to the force of a definite one by the article, § 181.

The article stood originally as every pronoun in apposition to the substantive, but has been so closely linked together in Hebrew with the following word that it is no longer an independent word. In the poets somewhat less frequent, it is very often used in the common language, and also to form a general name by giving prominence to an adjective in the masc. sing.: הַּבְנַעֵּנִינִי the Canaanite (and not the Hebrew, for instance), יַבְּנַעְנִינִי the footman, i. e., the infantry, הַבְּנִענִי the ancient, or ancients; הַּבְּלִים the escaped, i. e., often that part of the people which has escaped the final overthrow, הְּאֹבֵר «the ambush», i. e., that part of the soldiers which is placed in reserve.

Proper-names, especially of persons, frequently lose the article as if they were beyond the need of the distinction that it gives, e. g., הַאֵלְהִים and more commonly אֵלְהִים God; but they retain fully then also the force of the article in reference to their sense and construction. All pronouns likewise have primarily of themselves the force of definite words, whether they stand alone or as suffixes, as also several numeric and relative words which are like the pronouns in meaning: אַל all, אַל in the stronger meaning a man, i. e., anyone, each.

Accordingly if a word is definite, whether it be so of itself in some way or on account of the connexion in which it stands, or whether it be so by choice, i. e., by assumption of the article, it has always as such far greater force in the sentence than an indefinite word; therefore, amongst other things, the accusative sign NIN, \$ 207, stands before it only.

In Aramaic the  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the dative is much more used in those cases in which the genuine Hebrew has this  $\frac{1}{2}$  as accusative sign, and, therefore, the dative stands also for the stronger accusative. This is met with here and there in some later pieces of the Hebrew of the O. T., as  $\psi$  69. 6; 116. 16; 129. 3.

\$278. The omission of the article before a noun which is qualified to receive it sufficiently expresses of itself that the object is intentionally presented as a single or indefinite somewhat; accordingly the indefinite plur. can express without any further addiA stronger expression of indefiniteness is obtained by such constructions as אַחַר שְׁעַרֶיךְ in one of thy cities (lit. gates, markets), j. e., in some one city of thine.

Further, the preposition מָ from also in many ways expresses very finely but intelligibly the idea of indefiniteness, as in the place of the subject מַרְהָעָם there came forth some from the people; or in the place of the accusative depending upon a verb, as מַרְהַעָּם he left from the people (how many is undefined), and in such rarer cases as Jer. 48. 32; Cant. 1. 2; and repeated, and therefore on account of the different predicates antithetical, מַהֶּם .... מַהָּם some (of them) .... others, 1 Chr. 9. 28—30. Hence the remarkable compounds, acc. § 270, with particles of similar meaning, מַבֶּם all that ever Gen. 9. 10; מַבְּם any one of .... Deut. 15. 7.

#### THE FIRST CLASS OF WORD-GROUPS.

The verb in its province of free subordination.

The verb is so predominant from its position and importance \$279. in the sentence, and from its meaning so powerful, that in most sentences it is as a corner-stone around which many other words dependent upon it collect. It can subordinate to itself one or more nouns, and even another verb; but every word that it subordinates, it subordinates only mediately and freely, therefore, in the accusative, only this accusative appears without any external mark in many constructions, so that the subordination is shown only by the sense of the whole context.

The Inf., and, from the other direction, the part. and even the adjective, possess similar powers of subordination, in as far as they all spring from the verb; but since, as nouns they are farther removed in many respects from the verb, and often lose its active force, they are construed in many groups of words more like nouns.

#### THE VERB WITH THE ACCUSATIVE AND PREPOSITIONS.

In the bare accusative alone the verb finds its proper extension and completion in many different ways, acc. \$\$ 204—6, which may possibly all concur in one sentence and in connexion with the same verb. The Hebrew makes the more frequent use of this immediate connexion of verb and subordinated noun the less it has our cases, and the more, therefore, it must resort to the mediate connexion by prepositions, \$ 217, when the accusative does not suffice: still the use of prepositions, on the other hand, has here so much the more various application, since no composition of the verb with prepositions is possible.

1. When the meaning of the verb is to be more closely defined in the most general way in its relation or its manner, the bare accusative generally suffices in Hebrew, without more definite prepositions; in which case either an adjective can be subordinated: עַרוֹם עָרוֹם the flees naked\*, or a substantive: I will be greater than thou אַרָוֹם as to the throne; the water rose 15 cubits Gen. 7, 20; I love her יְנִים with willingness, i. e., gladly, accordingly in our language an adverb, יַלְּךְ שִׁבִי to go captive or into captivity.

The construction אַכּלוּ חֵרֶב you will be devoured by the sword, Is. 1. 20; Prov. 19. 23, met with in the poets, is bolder and uncommon, since in the somewhat resembling nominal group אַכְלוּ חֵרֶב devoured of the sword can be said, acc. § 288.

With the help of a substantive short combinations of words also may in this way be subordinated for nearer definition: he wept קוֹיָם with a loud voice, i. e., aloud; whoever works בַּרְ רְמִיָּה with slack hand, or as we say, carelessly; or even an entire short sentence: I saw God פָּנִים אֶּלְ-פָּנִים הַּלָּבְּיִם face to face, i. e., quite near, before the eyes; he met him קרוע בּהְנוֹת rent as to his raiment, i. e., with his garment rent, acc. \$\$ 341, 288.

It is most remarkable here that the infinitive also is very frequently used to explain and describe more fully the nature of the

<sup>\*</sup> That here and in similar, according to the Latin doubtful, cases, we have really the accusative in the Semitic tongues, the Arabic everywhere shows.

If the same verb is repeated in the inf. abs., both when closely conjoined forming one idea, this construction expresses, as if by painting, the constant incessant advance, or also the full undoubted existence of the action, and may be variously rendered according to the connexion in our languages: אָמָעוּ שׁמִעוּ hear ye, hear ye!, i. e., either listen carefully, Job 13. 17, or listen continually, Is. 6. 9; הלך הלך הלך ווי he is gone gone, i. e., quite, wholly gone away. To such an inf. abs. a second may be joined by and שצא יצא ושוב he went out and in continually; but הלה especially may be so used to give prominence to the idea of the continued increase of an action: הלך הלך וגרל he went continually and grew, i. e., he became gradually greater and greater (where, however, the second verb is in the part. intrans. § 169), or with greater nicety thus: שבו הלוך ושוב they returned continually. With this meaning the proper position of the inf. absol. is after its verb, quite the contrary of what is observed in the very different case § 312: only in especially emphatic discourse does the inf. abs. with this meaning sometimes appear before the verb.

If the verbal idea is to be further described merely as to its § 281. contents or as it were its extension, this occurs

a) most naturally in the frequent construction of the verb with the accusative of its cognate noun, in order to confine itself

to itself: דְעָ הְעַה to know, i. e., to have wisdom, or to limit the general by something special: בָּכָה בְּכִי נְרוֹל to weep a great weeping, i. e., very much, חֶרֶב to flee the sword's flight, i. e., as one flees before the sword; in this way a similar substantive also may be subordinated.

- b) Verbs which denote a state or condition, are construed immediately with their supplement, especially the very various verbs for full and the contrary, as שָׁבֵע לֵהָע to be satisfied with bread, שִׁבְע לֵהְ to want good, מֵרָב לַה to want good, שִׁרָב לַה the ground ascended, became high, and full of thorns: yet here בוֹ is sometimes added, ψ 88. 4. Similarly בֵּר חֵיל he became afflicted in his feet, בֵּר חֵיל to be strong in might, but in the latter case more emphatically with also, in the fitting place: in relation to, I Kings 10. 23.
- c) The accusative points out briefly, and so generally used indefinitely, the member or the part of a whole which is chiefly concerned: לַּבָּה he smote him as to the soul, or the life, i. e., to death, and with a reflexive verb: הַּשְּׁחַחְוָה אַפָּיִם to bow oneself with the face.
- 2. The accusative construction is stronger and more apparent when it expresses the motion and direction of a verb of motion towards a place; lift your hands אַ לְּהָ to the sanctuary; he called them מְּשִׁהְ into the field: yet when a person is spoken of a preposition of motion is always required, and in reference to places merely the ending הַ, \$ 216, is often added. Further when it expresses the final effect and result of an action: יָשׁיִן הַמְּנִים to sleep (into or to) the death, so that sleep becomes death; it became putrid הַּבְּעִים to worms. Yet יִ to expresses more distinctly the meaning of getting to be or becoming before a more exact predicate: הַּיִּשְׁיִּ לַשְּׁלְּשִׁים be ye to, i. e., become men, בּיִשִּׁי to go forth to freedom, i. e., to become free.
- § 282. 3. The strongest meaning of this construction, in which the subordinated person or thing is itself affected and determined by the action, is established with additional power, so that half-passive verbs also, and those which have no full passive, can receive this power by a new turn of their meaning: as אָרָאָהוּי I called him so אָרָאָהוּי I was able, i. e., overcame him, אָרָאָהוּי I went out (of) it, i. e., left it. Whether the language

raises a verb to this power, or construes it always or sometimes and in prose mediately by prepositions, or also defines again more nearly the meaning, which is capable of immediate relation, by prepositions (as בְּרָא אַלִיי he called to him, or also called him to him, קרָא אַחָרָיו, he called after him), must everywhere be learnt from the particular cases: in general the Hebrew has in this respect great freedom and flexibility.

Nevertheless the language already begins to subordinate many a word more loosely with איז with, in the place of the immediate and strongly active construction: עַבר בְּ to work with one, i. e., to cause him to work, compel to labour, use as a slave, which might, therefore, be more concisely expressed by the causal verb הֵעֶבִידּר with the accusative.

A causal-stem from the active verb, Hif-fl or Pi-el, has in § 283. itself, acc. § 122, the power of subordinating two different objects. But every other verb also can subordinate two objects, in themselves distant from each other, first the person affected by the action, secondly, the thing implied in it, if both are possible according to one of the above cases:

- ו) According to the first case, \$ 279: he rules the nations with knowledge and prudence, Jer. 3. 15; Mic. 7. 2.
- 2) Very frequently according to the case, \$ 281; especially are all the various verbs of filling, satisfying, enlivening, supporting, surrounding and clothing with their opposites: depriving, etc., construed with two different objects, although here prepositions also may promote clearness: DJP, e. g., to come before, i. e., to anticipate in giving, with the subordination of both the recipient and the present \$\psi\$. 21. 4, yet also with the present subordinated by \$\frac{1}{2}\$ with, Mic. 6. 6.
- 3) Since the verbs of treating and rewarding, of enquiring, teaching, commanding as well as of answering, further of giving, subordinate as naturally the person as the thing according to the third case, \$ 282, they are very frequently construed with two of these objects: yet the substance of the teaching may also be more loosely added by about, concerning, and the person taught is sometimes put in the dative, i. e., with in as in modern languages; an infinitive also prefers subordination by means of it is in a lowed, to thee to do.

\$ 284. In an entirely different way a complete sentence, i. e., subject and predicate may be subordinated in both its parts to an active verb; the verbs of making, appointing, naming, and the like have especially this force: just as we say אַהְה נָבִיא thou art prophet, so also נַחַהְּק נָבִיא I made thee prophet, he made the altar אָשׁ wood, i. e., wooden (of wood), comp. \$ 296, but also thus: he built the stones חַבַּוֹם (into) an altar, built of them an altar, as we should say; the verbs of the senses and of thinking or believing: I consider them עוֹרָכִים blind; in this as well as in the previous case, יְׁ may be added for clearness: they anointed David לְמֵלְךְ to (be) king, he held her drunken woman.

This construction is more important if a fuller sentence, e. g., a verbal sentence, is thus subordinated: and, when the participle as describing a state is less suitable, a finite verb may be thus subordinated: אַרְאָה צּוֹיִם בָּאוֹ which in sense corresponds to the Latin vidit gentes venisse, θρ. 1. 10; but more rarely the freer position of the words also corresponds with the Lat. accus. cum inf. Jer. 36. 9, comp. Judg. 11. 20; Num. 20, 21; Jer. 6. 6; 13. 21; 30. 6.

If by the passive construction that object which in all the above cases was the affected person, becomes the person of the sentence, i. e., nominative or subject, the other object still remains subordinate in the accusative, as אַלְּינָן commissioned with hard (command), since the verb אַלָּינָ to send when it denotes commissioning or commanding is construed with two objects, acc. § 283.

#### THE VERB WITH A SUBORDINATED VERB.

\$285. A verb which requires the help of another verb to complete its meaning generally subordinates the second verb in the infinitive, and mostly with הַרְבָּה לַעֲשׁהוּ he ceased to go out, הַוֹּבֶּה לַעֲשׁהוּ he magnified to do, i. e., he did much, but, especially in poetry, without לְבָּה מֹבֶּה he made straight to go, i. e., went straight, since we prefer in our languages to express one of these subordinate verbs by an adverb. It is very rarely, and only in poetry, that the imperfect performs this service of completing an incomplete verb: בְּעָהִי אֲבָנָה I know how to flatter, Job. 32. 22; Is. 42. 21; 8p. 4. 14. Still more

rarely is the participle also thus subordinated, as describing a state or facility, as ידע מנגן who knows how to play, 1 Sam. 16. 16.

In another way, more Aramaic and in Hebrew poetic rather, a second verb may be set in apposition to the first immediately (i. e., without and), so as to form a sort of verbal compound, by means of which both verbs more closely conjoin to express one idea: אַל אַרָבּוּ אַרַבּוּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרַבּיּ אַרָּי אָרַבּיּ אַרָּי אָרַיּ אַרָּי אָרָי אָרָּי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָּי אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אַרְיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרְיּיּ אַרְיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרְיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָרָי אָרְיּיּ אָרְיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָרְיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָּיּי אָּיּיּ אָרָי אָרָי אָּיּיּ אָּי אָרָי אָּיּיּ אּיּיּי אָּי אָרָי אָּי אָּי אָרָי אָּי אָרָּי אָּי אָרּיּ אָּי אָּי אָרּי אָּי אָּי אָּי אּי בּיּי אָּי אָרּי אָרּיי אּי בּיּיּיּ אַרּיי אָייּי אּי בּיּי אַרּיי אָּי אָרּי אַרּיי אָי אַרְיּי אָי אַרּי אַרּי אָּי אָרּי

# SECOND CLASS OF WORD-GROUPS.

Words in attraction (in the construct state); the genitive and what is like it.

The attraction of words, explained at length \$ 208, is \$286.

1. Most necessary and strongest when the noun in its most proper character, i. e., as substantive, attracts and conjoins with itself most closely another word of equal force and independence but with an entirely different position and relation, although still belonging to it and indispensably needful: in such a case neither mere apposition nor loose subordination of the second word (in the acc.) gives the sense, and the strict subordination alone is sufficient, whether the second word is a substantive, or an adjective with the meaning of a substantive, or a pronoun. If the first word denotes an action, the second may indicate either its origin or its object, as פֿחָדָּי my fear means in different connexions either the fear which I have, or the fear of me, and דָבר עָבדוּ either the word of his servant or the word concerning him, Is. 44. 26. But the first word often indicates only a general relation, e. g., time, place, intention, and in the last case may stand also before a whole sentence as its supplement, \$\$ 299, 332, sq. Or the first word gives prominence to an individual or individuals of a whole: קטן בניי the little one (i. e., as we say the smallest) of his sons, and if the second is indefinite: נְסִיכֵי אָרָם anointed of mankind, i. e., anointed men and no others. But proper-names rarely adapt themselves as first members of this chain: יהוה צבאות Jahve (the God) of hosts, for which יהוה אלהי is often used.

The usage of the so called *incomplete* nouns § 209. 3, should be especially observed, as אָלְיִי voice Jahve's can mean simply hear Jahve . . . even in the regular order of the words, ψ. 29. 3, sq. And the simple numerals from 3—10, often even אַלְיִי two, prop. a pair, belong here originally as to usage, § 267.

- \$287. The exact contrary of this arises if a substantive is further supplemented with a description of its properties or its contents: these additions are connected in sense much more loosely with the substantive around which they collect, and which always predominates. If, therefore,

  - b) Ideas which according to the historical development of the Hebrew language are expressed most easily by adverbs or compounds with prepositions and similar words, are more frequently co-ordinated merely than subordinated in close connexion; we find pure co-ordination in cases like subordinated in close connexion; we find pure co-ordination in cases like [אַרָרָהְי בִּי אַשׁ helf in me, i. e., my inward help, חַבֶּי אַ אַלּהֹא careless, i. e., careless Kûsh, Ez. 30. 9; but with אַלְיִי מִּר חַלְּ men a few, i. e., few men, interchanges אַלְרָהִי בְּרָחְ וֹחְ וֹחִי בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וְּחָלֶּחְ בַּיִי וְּחָלֶּחְ בִּי וְּחָלְּחְ בִּי וְּחָלְּחְ בַּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בִּי וֹחְלָּחְ בַּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִייִים וֹחְלָּחְ בַּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בַּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים וֹחְלָּחְ בִּיִים בּיִים וֹחִלְּחִים בְּיִים בּיִים בּיים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיִים בּיים בּיִים בּיים בּיִים בּיים  בּיִים בְּיִים בִּים בְּים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּיִים בְּים בְּיִים  - c) A substantive remains loosely co-ordinate if it only gives in other words the sense of the first: קור הַמָּלָּן David the king, or if a corresponding adjective does not exist and yet subordination would convey a false meaning: נַעָרָה בְּחֹלָה puella virgo. In other cases it is always subordinate; and substantives must serve by circumlocution to express qualities all the more, since in Hebrew from many nouns no adjectives have been formed (§ 164), as אַרוֹן עֵץ ark of wood, i. e., wooden ark, מַלַּלְּרְ בָּחַלְּרָ מַלַּלְר, i. e., silver gods, אַרָּח אַל bero of might, i. e., mighty; and עַרָּח אַל God's, i. e., divine assembly,

where just as in מַמְלְכוֹח הָאֵלִיל the gods', i. e., idolatrous kingdoms, the shortest substantive suffices to indicate the quality.

The want of common adjectives, § 164, is also very much helped out by prefixing in the st. c. a short personal name of a general signification, as בַּעָל דְּבֶּרָים vir formae, i. e. formosus, בַּעָל דְּבָּרָים a master of words, i. e., who has something to say (to complain), בַּן דְּבִּרָים filius opum, i. e., opulentus, well-to-do.

Since the numerals beyond 10, acc. § 269, can form no adjectives, the signification of the adjectives is expressed by a combination of words, so that even this may be said: אַנָּח הַּחַמָּשִׁים עָּיָּה the year of the 50 years, i. e., the 50th year, or shorter אַנָּח הַּחַמָּשִׁים in the 50th year. But the same signification of all numbers also may be so rendered: אַבְעָּה הַשְּׁנֵח נַשְׁיִלְּיִנְ the year of the seven (years), i. e., the seventh.

But one of these substantives may easily separate itself more, and with the rejection of the st. c. subordinate itself - more freely, i. e., either in the accusative, or, acc. \$ 293, even in the same case as the preceding noun, whenever it describes nothing but the common predicates of measure: ימים מספר days of number, i. e., numerable, few; or of contents: מַמְמנֹים stores in the field of wheat, Jer. 41. 8; Ex. 22. 30; משרה כל עץ a grove of any wood (also after a longer parenthesis Deut. ווח מבול the flood ... of waters, Gen. 7. 6, comp. 6. 17; הַבְּקר הַנְּחְשֵׁח the calves the brass, i. e., מה יהיה Kings 16. 17, comp. \$ 290. - Similarly מה יהיה ש what will come to pass evil, i. e. what evil. — The name of the contents of a number beyond 10, or of a measure then suffices at the end in the sing, and without the article, and after an indication of plurality in number a second plur. is unneedful: עשרים איש 20 man, קמח three measures meal, hundred אילִים צָּמֶר rams (i. e., fleeces) wool, שָׁבוּעַ יָמִים a week days, i. e., time, a week long.

- 3. Every participle and adjective can be supplemented as § 288. a noun by any substantive, and a substantive which for any reason whatosever subordinates itself in the accusative to a verb, is construed with the participle chiefly in the st. c.; although the looser subordination by the accusative is not very unnatural. Thus
- a) the participle of the active verb: אָרְהִים lovers of God, מְאָרָה enlightening the eyes; also bolder constructions,

when the accusative would not generally suffice, are found in these series of ideas: זְחֵלֵי עָפָר dust-creepers, שְׁלֶּבֵי הֶּלֶבְי הָלֶבְּי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הַלְּבִּי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבְי הָלֶבּי הָלֶבּי הָלֶבּי הַלְּבּי הַלְּבִּי הָלְבִּי הְלָּב הַי מִּישׁר dust-creepers, הַלֶּבְי הָלֶב שִׁלְּבִי הְלָּב הְּלְּבְי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הַלְּבְּי הְּלְבְּי הְלָב הְּבְּי הְבְּי הַלְּבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְלָב הְּבְּי הְבְּי ְבְּי הְבִּי הְבְּי י הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבִּי הְבְּי הְרְיִי הְיִבְי הְבְּי הְבְיי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְיבְי הְבְּי הְבְייה הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְיּבְי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּי הְבְּיִבְי הְבְּיִבְי הְבְּיְי הְבְּיִי הְבְיּבְייִי הְבְיּבְיּבְייִבְייִי הְבְּיִים הְבְּיִים הְבְּיִי הְבְיּבְיּבְיּבְיּבְייה הְבְּיבְייה הְבְיבּיה הְבּיבְייה הְבְיבְיבְיהְיהְיּבְיּים הְבּיבְייה הְבְּיבְיהְיבְיהְיהְיבְיּבְיּבְיּבְיהְיבְיהְיבּיה הְבּיבְיהְיבְיבְיּבְיּבְיּבְיהְיבְיהְבּיה הְבּיבְיהְיבְיבְיה הְבּבּיה הְבּבּיה הְבּיבְיבּיבּיה הבּבּיה הּבּבּיה הְבּיבּיה הּבּבּיי הְבּיבּיה הבּבּיה 
- c) Adjectives or participles instead of them: מול בוול בון strong, אוול בון fainthearted; סֵר טַעַם unwise Prov. 11, 22; חולה אַהְבָה she who is love-sick, בְּבְּר אָהָן wickedly faithless; rarely with a reflexive suffix to the noun: לְלוֹן דְּרָבָיוּ he who is perverse of his ways, i. e., whose own ways are perverse, Prov. 14. 2. The accusative, however, is allowable mostly only where the position of the words does not allow the st. c., Job 15. 10; a preposition also is sometimes added for the sake of clearness, as \$ 280, Job 32. 4, 6.

If an adjective is to be supplemented by another adjective or an adverb, either of them must be co-ordinated merely: בָּרוֹל very great, נַקִּי חַנָּם very great, נַקִּי חַנָּם vainly innocent.

## Consequences of the attraction.

- \$ 289. Since the construct state introduces a series of ideas and words which are completed only at the end of the series, these consequences must follow:
  - 1. No adjective or pronoun or any other appositional word can intervene; but a merely repeated word, or one explained by a similar word, may be continued in the st. c., whilst the discourse awaits addition: נְהֵרֵי נָחֵלִי דְבַשׁ streams,

brooks of honey and milk, Job 20. 17 (comp., however, Jer. 7, 24). But the intervention of a preposition, especially of a small one, does not much obstruct the st. c., when in signification such a series of ideas holds together more closely, although it is generally only poets that avail themselves of this Aramaic freeness: בְּלִבְּעֵׁ מִילְבָּעִׁ מִילְבָּעִ מִּלְבָּעִ מִּלְבַּעִּ מִילְבָּעִ מִּלְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַעְ מִילְבַּעְ מִילְבַעְ מִילְבַעְ מִילְבַעְ מִילְבַעְ מִילִּבְעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילִּבְעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילִּבְעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילְבְּעַ מִּלְבַעְ מִילְבְעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְעַ  מִּבְּעַ מִבְּעַ מְלַבְעַ מִּבְּעַ מִבְּעְ לְבַּנִיעִ מְלִבְּעַ מִּבְּעַ מִּלְבְעַ מִּבְּעַ מִּבְּעַ בְּעַבְּעִ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְּעַ מִּלְבְעַ מִּבְּעִ מְלִבְּעִ מִּבְּעִ מְבִּע מִבְּעִבְּע מִבְּעִים מְלְבָּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּע מִּבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִבְּע מְּע מְבְע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִּע מְבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְע מִּע מְבְּע מְבְּע מִּבְּע מִּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְע מִּע מְבְּע מִבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְּע מִּבְע מִּבְּע מ

2. The first member does not readily receive the article, \$ 290. which rather attracts the emphasis of the pronunciation towards the beginning, whilst in the series it hastens to the end: the article is affixed, therefore, to the last member, even if this of itself ought not to have it, but extends its force from this to the first member: בוֹן דֹוֹלֵב the fainthearted (one); if the last member is definite even without the article, its definiteness affects just as strongly the first: בֹּוֹל the son of Isai, יוֹב אָשׁ son; if it must, acc. \$ 278, necessarily remain indefinite, the first loses the article which it might have from its own meaning:

Only if the last member is not really conjoined strictly with the first, but is connected somewhat more loosely, does the first receive the article, in the cases \$\$ 287 c and 288, therefore: הנחנת שש the coat of Byssus, השרה the field-produce, הפודה he who redeemed thee (from השום) where the suffix might easily be in the accusative; and if the first word notwithstanding the st. a has assumed, acc. \$ 216, the postfix of the demonstrative האהלה שרה: האהלה towards the tent of Sarah, Gen. 24. 67; somewhat oftener before a mere suffix as a second noun, Prov. 16. 4, or if two nouns frequently occur together and, therefore, form a kind of unity: הַאַרוֹן הבריח the ark-of-the-covenant, and elsewhere here and there more irregularly in later writers. But if then the first member, which might stand in the st. c., becomes more free by prefixing the article, it remains sometimes even in the st. absol.: הַבַּקר הַנָּחְשֵׁת the brazen calves; the possible repetition in the st. constr. of a noun which was at first quite independent in sense and construction, is sometimes omitted: the great desert שָׁהָשׁ of snakes and drought, when it might be מרבר נחשר, Deut. 8. 15.

3. If the series is extended to three or more nouns, the \$ 291. same laws apply; and if the second describes only the properties of the first, the third may refer as to its signification to both the preceding ones, if no ambiguity would arise: מנים ומרוח ישראל he of sweet songs, i.e., the sweet singer of Israel; ימי עולם משה the days of antiquity, i. e., the ancient days of Moses, Is. 63. 11, where, however, the second noun is left in the st. absol. In the same way the signification of a pronoun as the concluding member of a series refers back to all the preceding nouns, if the middle noun can be conceived in conjunction with the first only: הר קַרְשִׁי my holiness'-mountain, i. e., my holy mountain, עליוי נאוחי my proudly rejoicing (soldiers); rarely and more in poetry a substantive describing the mere quality is put last in the accusative, acc. \$ 2876: שנאי שקר my lying enemies, i. e., without ground.

# Circumlocution of the Genitive-relation.

- \$292. When the force of our Genitive from some cause cannot be expressed in Hebrew by the above close subordination of a second noun under a foregoing one, the preposition of the dative serves very suitably for this object, inasmuch as it denotes the very first mediate relation. Some of the main cases are
  - ו) when a noun of this kind stands quite separate from any other word, or at the beginning of the sentence: לָּדָוּר David's or of David (a song);
  - 2) if the preceding noun should stand alone in order to mark it intentionally as indefinite: מֵּלְיִלֵּיִי a son of Isai's, since בְּּלְיִינִייִ in the st. c. would most naturally mean, acc. § 290, quite otherwise the son of Isai;
  - 3) when an other word, e. g., a numeral, intervenes and the whole series is quite interrupted: קַּמְלָּהְ in the year two (acc. \$ 287) of the king. From such more necessary cases the use of לים is extended, and becomes elsewhere frequent to give the force of our genitive.

If a word of this kind is added at the end, it may be attached by means of אַשֶּׁי who, which, in a second small sentence, which relative is found especially with a personal pronoun, as the commencement of the formation of a possessive pronoun, which is in general wholly wanting: הַפִּרְדָה אֲשֶׁר לִי the mule which is to me, or mine, i. e., my mule, I Kings I. 33, comp. v. 38.

This serves also at times as a circumlocution of the accusative, i. e., the mediate subordination occurs here also instead of the immediate; primarily with a participle which is connected for some reason less easily immediately, Lev. 12. 7; Num. 10. 25, or when the accusative, acc. \$ 309, is put before its verb, Is. 11. 9; I Sam. 22. 7, then also in more general use, as in Aramaic it represents the Hebrew NiN, \$\$ 207, 277.

#### THIRD CLASS OF WORD-GROUPS.

### Words in Co-ordination (Apposition).

The adjective or pronoun co-ordinated to a substantive is placed after it regularly; and so that if the substantive is made definite by the article or is so in itself, every co-ordinate word must be definite likewise: אַרּשׁ בָּרוֹל מַ מְּרָשׁׁ בְּרוֹא מַ מְּרָשׁׁ בְּרוֹא that man, בַּנִי הַנְּרוֹל הַנֶּה הַבְּרוֹל הַנָּה הַבְּרוֹל הַנָּה מַנְּבְּרוֹל הַנָּה מַנְּבְּרוֹל הַנָּה בַּנִי הַנְּרוֹל הַנָּה מַנְבְּרוֹל הַנָּה מַנְבְּרוֹל הַנָּה בַּנִי הַנְּרוֹל הַנָּה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְּה ּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְה בּבְּרוֹל הַנְיִי בְּבְרוֹל הַנְיִי בְּבְּרוֹל הַנְיִי בְּבְּרוֹל הַנְיִי בְּבְּרוֹל הַנְיה בּבּבּרוֹל בּבּרוֹל בּבּרוֹל בּבּבּרוּל בּבּבוּל בּבּבּרוֹל בּבּרוֹל בּבוֹי הַבְּבוֹי בּבּבוֹל בּבּבוּל בּבוּל הַבּבּרוֹל בּבוּל הַבּבוּל בּבוּל הַבּבוּל בּבוּל הַבּבוּל בּבוֹי הַבְּבוֹי בּבוֹי הַבְּבוֹי בּבוּל הַבּבוּל בּבוּל הַבּבוּל בּבוּל הבוּבוּל בוּבוּל 

whole connexion of meaning and tone only can decide to which of the two the co-ordination belongs (comp. § 289), as מַרְהַמֶּלֶךְ הַבְּּדוֹל may mean either the son of the great king or the elder son of the king.

Still a pronoun is often connected without an article, especially if the substantive has a mere suffix, אֹלוֹי אֹלָה these my signs; an adjective more rarely: but sometimes the article is put in the middle with careless brevity, before the adjective therefore, in which case the substantive may then take the st. constr., acc. § 287: אַלוֹי the great mountain, especially with numerals: יוֹם הֹשֹׁלִילִי the third day, comp. Jer. 38. 14, where the st. abs. remains.

On the other hand, the simplest pronoun only is sometimes prefixed: בְּעַלְּיִלְים this people, בְּעָם הַּגְּלָּיִלִם this people here; of adjectives מוֹלְיִלָם הַנְּלָּים this people here; of adjectives מוֹל much, very rarely or with extraordinary emphasis (Is. 28. 21) any other.

An adverb is similarly always co-ordinate with its adjective and after it, as נְּחֵל מָאֹר עִּרְיּל מָאֹר But in other cases it has greater freedom as to position, and may often precede the verb, as מָאֹר נַעַלָּה greatly is he exalted! שְׁ 47. 10.

### 2. THE CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

## 1) THE FUNDAMENTAL AND SECONDARY MEMBERS.

§ 294. The two fundamental members of a sentence have been defined § 276. But of these

ז. the person, or the subject, of the sentence may or must often be left unnamed: the verb in that case stands alone, usually in the plur. masc.: יאֹמָרוֹ dicunt, much more rarely in the sing. masc., when the speaker really has in his mind some one who is to be unnamed, and, therefore, especially in certain idioms, as קרא שׁמוֹ one named his name, since in reality only one can have at first invented the name, שׁמוֹ he (the farmer, a special class among men) ploughs, our one ploughs. But circumlocutions with this meaning also occur, as: שׁמֹל הַוֹּמֵל falls the falling one, whoever falls, anyone that falls.

The more animated addressing of an indefinite anyone, i. e., the employment of those, for one, anyone, whosoever, is met with in the idiom,

used in direction, 기계의 기계 until thy coming, i. e., thou comest or thitherward until thou, and more briefly 기계 merely; further at times in legal language (Lev. 27. 2 sq.; Ez. 43. 19—27. § 309.

If the subject of the sentence shall be indicated without \$295. any nearer definition as impersonal, i. e., in the neuter, the verb, acc. \$ 172, stands either in the masc. or the fem. sing.: especially the fem. in occurrences produced by unknown forces, as חַמְטִיר it rains, הַשְּׁבֶה it has become dark; in the expressions of the feelings, when the person who has the feeling is supplied, often by subordination, oftenest in the dat., the masc. sing. is mostly sufficient: מר לי it was bitter to one, ודע לו it was evil to him, ינעם לי it is agreeable to one, או ינעם לי it is agreeable to one, וחרה לו i. e., angry, or he was angry, but also in the fem. יו ערה לו it became narrow to him (afflictive); but always יִקשה בְעִינַי it is in my eyes, appears to me hard. The masc. only is used for the short periphrasis of a past passive action: it is begun, שָׁרָּד it is wasted, מרבה it is spoken, phrases the meaning of which so entirely corresponds to the active expressions one has begun, one speaks, that an accusative may be constantly subordinated to them, since the active construction of words is always the most natural: יהן אחרהארץ may one give the land, סדר אחרהבנים one bore him the sons, a phrase borrowed from polygamy; as the accusative similarly may be construed with זְּנָה לִי it was to me, i. e., I had. Rarely is it like the German es gibt, Prov. 13. 10, Job 37, 10.

When the active subject is to be named, the passive is not often chosen, acc. § 128. If, however, the passive is chosen and the active subject is to be completed, it is usually not subordinated as in our languages by 12 by but more briefly in the mere dative, as Death is chosen by by all, actions are weighed 15 by him, I Sam. 2. 3; Prov. 14. 20, comp. § 217 b.

This half of the sentence is impersonal, further, if an idea which in itself might form an entire sentence is comprehensively given in the inf.; and if the person is not then mentioned (as it might be by means of the st. בּ: הַּיִּח הָּאָרָם not good is the being of man, i. e., that man should be alone), the inf. may be loosely connected with the predicate as in English: מוֹב לְשֵׁבֶּח good is it to dwell securely, or, with the same meaning, that one should dwell securely.

- 2. The predicate as to its external form may be very different: \$ 296. it is usually an adjective, but may be any other part of speech which the sense requires, e. g., an adverb often used to signify a state, which therefore must be conceived of as originally in the accusative: הְשׁלוֹם אביכם is your father well? or a simple substantive. The latter usage is especially frequent, because in these languages there is a great want of adjectives which are derived from substantives, \$ 164: accordingly one finds, acc. \$ 287, קיך עץ wall of wood, i. e., wooden, or the people was one tongue and one language, instead of which one might say mere fully na people of one tongue and one language, Gen. 11. 1; Is. 5. 11; 7. 24;  $\psi$ . 45. 7. It is somewhat different when a substantive as a short predicate far exceeds in the force and fulness of expression a mere adjective: be a blessing/, i. e., example and ideal of blessing, Gen. 12. 2; God is truth, nothing but this, nothing false, Jer. 10. 10; fire are (more strongly put than fiery) the punishments of the divine sword, Job 19. 29.
- S 297. An external sign for connecting (copula) these two fundamental parts of a sentence is in itself unnecessary, and is but rarely found in Hebrew. The pronoun of the third person necessarily serves, when all nearer predication is wanting, as the most general sign of existence: אַני אוֹר הוּא בּ וֹר מּא הַ בּ וֹר מּא בּ וּבּ וּ מִי מִי בּ וֹר מּא בּ וֹר מּוֹר מּוֹא אִבּוֹר הוֹא הַמּא בּ וֹר הוֹא הַמּא בּ בּיֹר בּיִי בְּיִי בִיי בּיִי בְּיִי  \$298. The verb הְּהָה be is properly only used when the connexion requires a verb, therefore for the past or future absolutely, and the imperative, voluntative. But as the verb to be is connected immediately with the more definite predicate, in like manner the verbs descriptive of a more special kind of being, verbs of beginning, of duration, and of ceasing, are connected immediately with the word of more definite predication, and receive by this

connexion their signification which is limited to being: הַחַל מְּרָחֵלּשׁ the sickle has beguñ, i. e., is just now in the corn, Deut. 16. 9; and since a kind of continued being or a condition is thus described, a verb as a more definite predicate is subordinated in the participle (as in Greek, but not according to this) Is. 33. 1; Jer. 23. 26.

The particles which acc. § 262 without being actually verbs \$ 299. vet in reality express being either in general or in particular kinds of it, primarily subordinate that to which they refer, so that the whole sentence strictly taken proceeds from a sharp particle of this kind: הנני en me! here am I, קווה existence of, i. e., there is (is not wanting) hope, אהנ there is a friend, or rather in connexion with a following relative sentence (acc. \$ 332) many a friend . . . . If a verb is added for nearer definition, it is primarily subordinated in the part. just as in § 298, if the past is not to be more definitely marked for some special reason. — However, since these particles oscillate in meaning between noun and verb, owing their origin to that, their force to this, they begin also to be looked upon as the second half of the sentence and thence to be used more freely: they may stand alone whenever the meaning is plain from the context, as הנה עם אחר there is one nation (the speaker presupposes the reference) Gen. 11. 6, and quite alone הנה there is he! (the well-known one) Job 9. 19, or if the language shall be intentionally indefinite, as העוד עפה is there still one with thee? (but this cannot occur with constantly definite הנה there, see); further, they may be separated from the word to which they refer by interposing words, or may be placed after a subject just as a verb (though this last usage is not applicable to הנה, which as demonstrative merely must always stand at the beginning): לי רב there is to me much, מון might is not there.

Sometimes in serves to indicate in what character a thing appears or consists; primarily in constructions like: I appeared in the name or as El-Schaddái, Ex. 6. 3; \(\psi\). 39. 7, then also with a simple predicate: This with he is one, Job 23. 13; \(\psi\). 68. 5.

#### THE SECONDARY MEMBERS OF SENTENCES.

- \$300. By the conjunction of the two fundamental members alone a sentence may become very much extended, since each may be lengthened, acc. \$ 276 sq., to smaller or greater groups of words. But more freely placed extensions of the sentence in single words or groups of words may be added still further:
  - 1. Statements of time, place, and similar relations which relate distantly to the predicate especially. The bare subordination of a noun in the accusative suffices here in very many cases, acc. \$ 204; or prepositions must be resorted to. The accusative is very generally sufficient a) in definitions of measure, space and time, as ראש האשלהח at the beginning of the night-watch, in poetry לְילָה middle of the night, for which in common language rather לחצות הלי about the middle of the night; - b) in definitions of place, especially in certain frequent phrases, as not door of ..., i. e., without before ...; ביח house of anyone, i. e., lat. apud, ביח also in the meaning at Bethel; - c) in definitions of the relation, the manner, the object of an action, as he sacrificed מַסְפַר כָּלָם number of them all, i. e., as many as there were of them, for which ממספר also may be said; עברה הלוים for the work of the Levites, i. e., that they should work, Ex. 38. 21; most briefly in poetry after the manner of God gives it his beloved NJW sleep, i. e., so that they sleep or sleeping \( \psi \). 127. 2.
- \$ 301. 2. A secondary member may refer also primarily to the subject, as אַר חַרָבוּ אִישׁ חַרְבוּ so emphatically may mean) his sword!

which originally form a small sentence of themselves by the side of the principal sentence, but then used in the signification of our one another, Greek ἀλλήλων, fit into any construction, even stand after the st. c. Zach. 7. 10, and abbreviate themselves more and more Ez. 1. 11, comp. v. 9.

\$302. 3. Other greater or smaller secondary members may be added in the character of dependent secondary sentences to the otherwise complete principal sentence, either quite at the beginning, e. g., a definition of time Gen. 1. 1; Is 6. 1., or at the end Is. 9. 6, or inserted into the sentence itself, as Ezra 2. 68.

#### IMPERFECT AND ABBREVIATED SENTENCES.

#### THE INFINITIVE CONSTRUCT IN SENTENCES.

If a necessary member of a sentence is wanting in a sentence § 303. standing quite alone, such an incomplete sentence must stand as interjectional or interrogative, § 327.

If a sentence is connected with something that precedes, a word that must otherwise necessarily be supplied may easily be omitted, if it would be an unemphatic pronoun (the reference is then conveyed in the meaning of the whole): the subject, if a particle of time or condition forcibly begins the predicate: יַּבְיּ when (he, the one implied in what goes before) is at my right hand, or if it is plain otherwise from a previous word: in the image of God made he (God) him, Gen. 9. 6; 14. 1. sq.; — often the object: he saw and announced (it).

As the inf. constr. follows in general the verb very closely, it \$304. may, where the context requires it instead of the finite verb, stand without suffix for the third person, in the sing. בְּרָאוֹת אַח־הָאִישׁ at the seeing, i. e., when he saw the man, or in the plur. indefinitely: in the shearing, i. e., when one sheared (בְּוַזוֹן his sheep; the nearer definition of another person, which may be gathered from the connexion, is much less frequent, Ez. 8. 6.

# 2) AS TO THE POSITION, THE RELATION AND THE IMPORTANCE OF THE WORDS.

I. In calm discourse a determinate order prevails in the \$306. conjunction of the words and the series of words in a sentence, which seems to be to a certain extent the more necessary and

inviolable in Hebrew the less the external form of its words is developed, § 6. Accordingly

ז. the predicate, as generally containing the most important part of what is to be said, most simply stands before the subject: צַּהִיק יְהָוָה righteous is Jahve, with the verb all the more, since the verb properly includes in itself its subject, so that a substantive is put in co-ordination only with it: אָמֵר יַהְנָה there spoke Jahve. However, when the predicate as well as the subject is a substantive, the predicate often follows the subject to avoid ambiguity: יְהָנָה הַאֵּלְהִים Jahve thy God is God, God absolutely.

On the other hand, in a special manner the subject always stands first to form a descriptive or condition-sentence, inasmuch as the discourse presents in the reverse order the person first for the directly following description, in direct opposition to the usual course of narration, and therefore puts the action and the event in the back-ground; whence the verb then stands primarily in the part., and only when the sense demands it in the perf.: so shall ye eat מחגיכם חגרים your loins girded etc., Ex. 12. 11; 2 Sam. 3. 34. Now if such a sentence stands at the commencement of a discourse, the part, points of itself to the state or condition lying nearest to the hearer, i. e., to the present or the future close before the mind, if the hearer is not directed by preceding words to transfer himself into a definite state of the past; then הנה behold is mostly prefixed: הנה אחק מחנחם behold, thy brother is wrath with thee, הנני מביא en me allaturum, i. e., en allaturus sum; הנני עמר behold I stood (during the dream) Gen. 41. yet where this emphatic הגה is not found, the part. in the simple temporal meaning of the present or the near future is sometimes put like a common verb, Jer. 23. 16; Gen. 31. 20.

- 307. 2. The object follows in calm, regular order after the verb and the subject, and is thereby indicated: מַלְאַרִים בּוּלְאָרִים and the subject, and is thereby indicated: מַלְאַרִים sent David messengers; which order remains especially clear if the sentence is introduced into its calm course by one or more words placed at its head, or if the verb in accordance with the connexion is put into the inf. constr.: יְהְוֶה אֶחְרַקְּרֹם in the destruction of Jahve, i. e., when Jahve destroyed Sodóm.
  - 3. Subject and predicate, or if these form one word, verb and object are, however, the firmest and most necessary con-

stituents of the sentence, which, therefore, receive into their midst smaller words or less important definitions in accordance with a law that prevails elsewhere: אָהוֹן לְּךְ הָאָרֵץ I will give to thee the land; so much so that the connexion of the inf. constr. and its subject may be separated: בַּשְׁלֹחַ אַחוֹ בַּיִּשְׁלֹחַ in the sending him, i. e., when Sargon sent him.

The order of the words in a sentence takes a freer form only in poets and especially in later writers.

At the beginning of a sentence something is sometimes projected \$308. which must be taken up again in a new form in the course of the sentence: this comes partly from excited speech, as even thou — on account of thy covenant's blood I release thy prisoners! Zach. 9. II, partly from a mere change of expression, as אַני עָם לְרָבִי I (it is or was) in my heart, i. e., I think or thought, but with the subject first on account of the descriptive sentence, \$ 306, I Chr. 28. 2.

- II. On the other hand, the discourse may bring into promi-\$309 nence a single idea in contrast with this calm order, either because of the emphasis which the speaker for some cause or other puts upon it, or for the sake of antithesis; which childlike restlessness and animation still clings especially to Hebrew. However, the degree in which this animation shows itself differs partly with the matter in hand, and partly with the classes of words:
- 1. With a lighter emphasis it is enough to put the subject or object first, contrary to the more calm order, in which case the verb stands most naturally in the middle: our hands shed no blood, our eyes saw it not; stones (even) wears away water; more rarely the verb stands at the end; if, on the other hand, the subject stands at the end after the verb and the object, it can by that means also obtain a certain emphasis: for teaches thy guilt thy mouth, Job 15. 5.

A more poetic and Aramaic method of lightly emphasising a noun is this, to point to it first by merely giving its suffix and then first to name it: they saw him, the boy, Ex. 2. 6; Is. 17. 6; Job 29. 3, his bed of Solomon's also in broad popular language, somewhat as Germans say Salomo sein Bett, Cant. 3. 7.

If the order is more strongly disturbed by a promoted noun, the noun must be repeated by its pronoun in the place where it would stand in calm discourse: but the people (acc.) he led it over into towns, Gen. 47. 21; most necessarily if its correlative word must come in properly as the last

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member of a series: נְּדֶרְ מְּלֶנְיוּ a river's brooks, as we can say by putting the gen. first.

The emphasis is still stronger if the dislocated noun is immediately taken up again in its pronoun: Jahve — him shall ye hallow! Is. 8. 13; Prov. 10, 22; or if a new emphasis drops in also: Jahve — in the heaven (and not on the earth) is his throne \$\psi\$ 11. 4. The little word WN man, which means sometimes nothing but the German man, one, when it is unemphatic, but when it is emphatic each one, is especially put disconnectedly at the head of the sentence: each one his half, the half of each one, Gen. 15. 10; Ez. 16. 19.

\$ 310. The prefix - , \$ 217b, sometimes gives prominence in the sentence to a single word as important, or supplies at the end such an important word, answering to our as to, or the Lat. quoad; as אַלְהַבְּי as to those who love me, Ex. 20. 5 sq.

A sentence that from any cause is animated throughout often begins with a τράρ, or more strongly with N surely, § 324, I, or in reference to the future or the present and the reason of the matter with 727 or shorter γ behold.

- § 311. 2. The repetition of the word itself gives the strongest emphasis: but this is more frequent and necessary only when the emphasis can be made clear in no other way, that is
  - ו) with the pronoun contained in the verbal person or in the suffix, which must be repeated in its full form, since it cannot be otherwise magnified nor repeated by itself in its dependent form: יַבְּי אַנִי חוֹלָ only I saved myself, בַּי אַנִי אַנִי his his soul, i. e., his and no other's, his own soul; the repetition of the pronoun in the dative is more poetic and Aramaic: אוֹבֵי לִי my enemies ψ. 27. 2, אוֹבָי לֵי my own vineyard in Canticles acc. \$\$ 181, 331. Later the pronoun came gradually to be used as well as the verbal person without any important emphasis.
- \$312. 2) Since the verb in calm discourse has its proper place at the beginning, \$ 306, a very frequent and quite peculiar idiom for the indication of emphasis has risen, namely this, to place the verb's inf. absol. before the verb itself, since the inf. absol. of itself often presents the verb alone with greater emphasis, \$ 328: אַקנָה שָׁקנָה buy it (not have it as a gift) will I; אַלְהָרָ הַּחַלְּהְ חִבְּלֵּךְ חִבְּעִ חַבְּע מִוּלִי בְּחַבְּע חַבְּע מִוּלִי בְּחַבְּע מִוּלְרָ בִּחַלְּרָ חִבְּע מִוּלִי בַּחַ מִּלִּהְ חַבְּע מִוּלִי בַּחַ מִּלִּהְ בַּחַבְּע מִבּי מִבּע מִבּי מִבּע מִבּי מִבּע מִבּע מִבּי מִבּע מִבּע מַבּע thee up again (not merely down), Gen. 46. 4, whilst, on the other hand, the inf. abs. is sometimes put at the beginning in the entirely different meaning \$ 280, Amos 9. 8; Is. 3. 16. But it is often sufficient here that the mere inf. Qal precede the more definite verbal stem, as Pual: אַרָּל מַרָּל torn is he.' Gen. 37. 33.

From such rhetorical repetition of a word those cases must be care-\$313. fully distinguished in which the repetition must serve to express a pure idea, because the language has not attained the power of expressing such an idea more briefly and clearly: repetition may in this way express:

- 1) the idea of a constant progress, of an endless multitude: שַׁנְיטָ מַעָּטְ a little a little, i. e., little by little, gradually, בַּדְרֶבְּ בַּלְּיִהְ מַּעְבְּעָה on the way; often with numerals to denote distribution: מֹשְׁיִי שְׁלִי בְּעָה עִּיִי שְׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁיִּי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שׁׁיִי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִּי שִׁיִי שִׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיְּיְיְיְיְּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי בְּיִי שְׁיְי שְׁיִּי שְׁיְיְי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיְּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּישְׁי שְׁיִי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִּישְׁיִי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְׁיִּיי שְׁיִּישְׁיִּי שְׁיִּישְׁיִּי שְׁיִיי שְׁיִיי שְׁיִּי שְׁיִי שְ
- 2) The idea of twofoldness, falseness, in which case the and is mostly required: אָבָן אָגָּלָּי stone and stone, i. e., different weights, comp. § 360; somewhat different יְטָי יִשׁ who and who? i. e., who are all in particular?
- 3. Prominence is most clearly given to a person by the \$314. pronoun הוא מטוסלה, Lat. ipse, referring back to it and in that way distinguishing it from others: אַב הוא the Levite himself, Num. 18. 23; Is. 7. 14, ללהן לו to the priest himself, Lev. 7. 8; especially conjunctive: Hábel brought sacrifices בו הוא also he, i. e., et ipse, likewise, Gen. 4. 4.

This short win has generally a strongly reflexive force in Hebrew, so that it can also form of itself the predicate with the meaning δ αὐτός the same, ψ. 102. 28. And since the language possesses no other reflexive word so short and so

convenient, this simple pronoun stands for the reflexive pronoun whenever it may refer as a suffix mediately to the subject: לו אָבָּוּ לוּ he made for himself (sibi), לו הַלְּבּ לוּ he went himself, i. e., has quite disappeared, אַבְּר בְּלַבוּ he spoke in his heart; אוֹחוּ, \$ 207, also is allowable for se ipsum; but where the construction is immediate, e. g., he praises himself, I know my own self, the language avails itself of בַּבָּב sout, \$ 209, which then appears in more extensive use. Further comp. \$ 209 b.

\$ 315. On the other hand, it is properly a decadence of the language and probably the effect of provincialisms, if sometimes the suffixes 'i.m. me and 'i.m. thee are used in calm discourse and without any emphasis for the stronger words 'i' to me and 'i' to thee Job 31. 18; Ez. 29. 3, comp. v. 9; Is. 44. 21; 65. 5.

### 3) THE AGREEMENT OF GENDER AND NUMBER.

- \$\frac{3}{3}\text{16}\$. There are indeed many exceptions to the general rule that verbs, adjectives and pronouns are ruled in number and gender by their substantive; but each exception has its justification:
  - ו. The predicate, especially the verb, if it precedes the subject, or especially if the subject follows one or more words later, may stand without any nearer definition; i. e., in the masc. sing.: אַבֶּר הַּרְבָּה passed by the cry, לְבֵר הַּרְבָּה there was not in them hands, i. e., power.

The adjective rarely remains in the primary form as a more distant predicate (§ 279) he makes the rich go to barefoot (as also in German in this case) Job 12. 17, 19; Is. 20. 4.

- \$317.
  2. The greatest number of exceptions arise from this fact, that the thought has greater influence than the external form; and this in various ways:
  - ו) Since the fem. sing., acc. § 179, is the proper form for a collective word, it can easily be referred to any plur., though especially to the plur. of inanimate objects or animals: עִינָיוּ קְמָהוּ the beasts look up, likewise with the dual: עִינָיוּ קְמָהוּ trampled them (the eggs) Job 39. 15. This construction, however, is more poetic in Hebrew. The opposite of this is formed by

- 3) In a series of words formed by the st. c. the predicate properly follows the first word as the chief member of the series; but sometimes the second, if this is much more important than the first in the sense of the whole context, especially with יסינפע when, acc. § 286, it expresses only our adverb loud: פל הַמִי צְּעָקִים foudly cry the blood-drops of they brother; mostly with יסינפע since it expresses our all or (when some definite individual is spoken of) our whole: אַרָּהַוְ לַּתְּרָה מִינְּהַעְּהַי then arose the whole congregation; similarly often with יסינפּר שׁל הַעְרָה מִינְּהַעְּהַ מִּבְּתַּה מִינְּהַעְּהַ מִּבְּתַּה similar מִבְּתַּה מִּבְּתַּה מִּבְּתַּה (i. e., many) and the similar מִבְּתַּה with מִבְּתַּה selection of, i. e., best . . .; in other cases here and there if the second gives in any way a more personal or fuller sense than the first 1 Sam. 2. 4; Lev. 13. 9.

Apart from these cases which are more capable of being reduced to \$318. general laws, there is still a number of scattered cases in which number or gender is overlooked on account of a second or more graphic sense; but the individual cases must be separately observed. Besides, certain authors, especially of the declining period, are less careful and certain than others, although with them also there may be some less obvious reason for the irregularity, which only operates more powerfully than needful, as, e. g., the masc. sing. The perfuming, because sacrifices were meant by it, is construed after a long interval with the plur, and then again with the fem. sing, as a neuter and collective, Jer. 44. 21.

Other departures from the rule arise, lastly, from indefi-\$319. nite discourse, which may at first name an individual instead of all that are like it, and then pass over to the plur., which is equally correct so far as the meaning is concerned, or may reversely single out an individual from what was at first presented generally without altering the sense; yet this change occurs generally only in prolonged discourse, in new sentences and descriptions, more rarely in separable parts of the

same sentence, and then most frequently with participles or adjectives used as a subject: מֶבְרֵבֶּין they who bless thee, i. e., if anyone blesses thee may he be blessed; and reversely another, i. e., being conceived of as indefinite, the same as others will spring up, but this is only in poetry, Job 8. 19.

It is the same thing if you and thou, when either suits the sense, Lev. 25. 14, or also thou (§ 294) and he, i. e., one, interchange, 2. 8; 13. 52, 55, 57.

#### 3. SPECIAL KINDS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

## 1) NEGATIVE SENTENCES.

- \$ 320. I. The objective negative Ν, Lat. non, Greek οὐx, and the subjective, according with the one-sided feeling and thought of the speaker, negation, Ν, Lat. ne, Greek μή, always refer in common discourse to the whole sentence, and, therefore, stand most properly before the verb as the foundation of the sentence, or, if the sense necessitates them to stand before another word (e. g., the subject, Num. 16. 29), at least so that they with this word refer to the whole sentence. This is carried so far, that in those cases in which otherwise an infinitive or a participle as predicate of the sentence would be used, the personal verb in the perf., or when this is less fitting in the imperf., although these two tenses in this case agree in the end when differently viewed, Lev. 11. 5 sq.; 17. 4, 9, must always be used on account of the Ν.
- \$321. 2. אַרָּאָ, acc. \$ 209 b, properly negatives only a single part of a sentence, i. e., never the entire personal verb (as that which contains both subject and predicate) but a noun as our without or the prefix in-, but becomes, when used more independently in the sentence, also a negation of existence in general; either before a single substantive, which then further explains the subject also: אֵלְי יִּעִיץ חוֹ no counsellor, i. e., there is no counsellor, אֵלְי עִשֶּׁה none who does, i. e., none does, or also before closer predication, which as a verb must be in the part. and by which means a somewhat more emphatic negation is formed: אֵלְנֵי שֹׁמֵע I am not hearing, i. e.,

3. בּלְהֵּי is except before a whole sentence (בַּלְהִי more § 322. before a single word); but also serves as merely a stronger negative in construction with a noun, especially with before the inf. constr., which should have this prep., acc. § 237: מבל מור not to turn from. The shorter בְּלִי מוּר may, although in prose only after a preposition, stand simply before the finite verb: על בְּלִי הִבּּיִר hot to turn from a simply before the finite verb: מַל בְּלִי הַבִּּיר הַבּּיר בּבּיר בּבּיר בּבּיר הַבּיר הַ

Sometimes two of these negatives are joined to strengthen somewhat § 323. the meaning: מַבְּלִי or מִבְּלִי without any —, since מְבָּלִי acc. § 217a, has likewise negative force.

Particles with the meaning of indefiniteness stand by the negative particles without any conjunctive attraction: מֹא־כֹל not anything, i. e., nothing, similarly מֹא־מָאוֹנְה and מֹאַרְמָאוֹנְה absolutely nothing, which almost everywhere serves for this object.

ים לאל or שׁים לאל to bring to nothing is allowable only in poetry.

# 2) Interrogative sentences.

1. If the sentence as a whole is interrogative, that word \$324. upon which the force of the interrogation especially comes is put first; yet sometimes another primary interrogatory word is found in the middle of the sentence, so that the sentence

takes a new start from that point, Gen. 17. 17. The emphatic emplacement at the beginning of the sentence of the word to which the interrogation especially refers together with the interrogative tone is enough without a proper interrogative particle, so that even אל sometimes denotes not—? and in negative doubtful interrogative sentences which are connected with something preceding by and and the imperf., there is regularly no interrogative particle: to others I have not told it, and to thee should I tell it? Yet in general interrogative particles are very frequent, and

1) the chief is הַּשְׁלוֹם לְנֵעֵר is זְּיִשְׁלוֹם לְנֵעֵר is it well with the boy? The compound הַלֹּא nonne? often points to something well known, so that it may be rendered yea, truly; on the other hand, אַל is surely not —? I feel, ψ. 121. 3.

מָכִי an quod? is it that—? if one does not know the cause, and hence equal to numquid? German etwa?

- \$325. 2. Of the interrogative pronouns שְׁ what? יְם who? the first even when it really refers to persons enquires as to nature and character: מָה שִׁלְּה what, i. e., of what nature, are these? but the second enquires as to persons even then when these are only implied: מִי שׁ who is the drove? that is, the men and animals in it. But although their proper place is the beginning of a sentence or a division of a sentence, they must conform to the law of the word-series, \$ 288, when they have the sense of our genitive, as יְם שׁ whose daughter? מַרְּבְּׁמַח מָה i. e., of what matter, wisdom?

<sup>\* 5</sup> does not stand before N, as, acc. § 70, elsewhere the placing together of many aspirates is avoided, I Sam. 22. 15; 2 Sam. 19. 23.

י is also the reproachful, blaming what, i. e., wherefore? or the rejecting what! or how! whence the transition to the meaning of an animated not is very easy but has scarcely begun in Hebrew, Job 31. I. Stronger blame is conveyed by begun in Hebrew, Job 31. I. Stronger blame is conveyed by what is to thee or what hast thou to do? which is also construed immediately with the imperf. or part. in the meaning of a present Is. 3. 15; Jon. 1. 6. אַ מָּה יִּלְי וְלָּיִלְ שִׁשׁ what is to me and thee? i. e., what have we in common? what hast thou with me? is likewise strongly repulsive.

שני יוֹהַע who knows? with the meaning probably may be construed similarly with a following verb, Joel 2. 14: but more frequently we have instead the shorter אולי, written אולי, which properly means whether that ....? and is thence also a stronger whether?

With the interrogative אֵי אָה ποῖος, § 183, הֹן hardly ever § 326. changes according to the gender, but as a more flexible particle is construed with prepositions. The substantive subordinated acc. § 287¢ is usually indefinite: אֵי אָה בְּיָח which house? אֵי הָה בְּיִח הַּלָּה from what city? Still it is also found with the article אַי מָּוֹה אָי אָה הַּהֶּרֶךְ הַלַּהְּ שִׁי which way went he? 2 Kings 3. 8, properly which is the way which he went? acc. § 332.

# 3) Exclamatory sentences.

1. For the single noun standing as an exclamation an \$327. interjection, acc. \$ 101, is not very common: it stands therefore without any alteration, and rather with than without the article: הַלֹּהוֹ O priest! and mostly but gradually changing into the second person, Hab. 2. 15. — The particle יִב, which

originates acc. § 101, stands sometimes before יְאָדֹנִי only in urgent request, O my lord!

Elsewhere the verb stands so abruptly and disconnectedly first because the speaker is too full of his subject to explain the action more calmly: i. e., will he really—? Job 40. 2, in which case the somewhat softer idiom of § 312. 2 might be used; — or in vigorous representation of deeds that excite much astonishment or displeasure, where in a further stage of the discourse the usual discourse is often returned to, Hos. 4. 2; Is. 21. 5.

But everywhere this inf., if the discourse were calmer, might be resolved into any person (into the first also Ez. 23. 30); and since it only stands more emphatically for the personal verb, it is construed entirely as the verb.

A wish may be expressed by a conditional particle, comp. בּוֹשׁבּּי; but the stronger conditional particle אל בּיִרְהָּיָה but the stronger conditional particle serves more frequently for this purpose than אָר יִרְהָיָה O if he lived, i. e. that he might live! לוֹיִרְהָהְ O that we were dead! but also עלי יְרְרָהְ with the full retention of the conditional perf. acc. \$ 355. Such particles may, finally, be put before the imper. even: אַרְּהָה לוֹ שִׁבְּעָנִי if thou (wouldest) — O hear me! Gen. 23. 13.

Compounded with this it (properly lan, thence also lai) we have

יה who? with the imperf. expresses the wish more gently; and מי יהו who will give this? i. e., would that—! is so frequent that it may stand immediately before the principal verb, or may also be construed in the manner of the Lat. accus. cum inf., Job. 6. 8; 11. 5.

קה, \$ 325, standing immediately before the predicate and \$330. closely connected with it, serves as an exclamation of astonishment at the nature of a thing: אַרָּא how terrible! Also such cases as שַׁה שִּׁרִם what his goodness! as we say, how good he is! Zach. 9. 17.

לי that often serves to intensify an affirmation: I mean that—/ and is therefore as the Lat. imo in our language either yea, Gen. 18. 20; Is. 32. 13, אַמָנָם כִּי verily indeed—/ or if the connexion naturally leads to an antithesis, no/ yet/ Is.2.6; 8.23.

# B. THE DEPENDENT SENTENCE.

#### 1. RELATIVE SENTENCES.

1. If the relative sentence starts with a personal word§ 331. who (neuter which), in general אָשֶׁא, § 181, serves to express it, to which in poetry אָשָׁר, § 103 (very rarely the mere article I Sam. 9. 24) sometimes corresponds; שואה שלה are used only in general ideas when everything is sought for and included that in any wise belongs, so that one might say instead whosoever, whatsoever, and thence also אַשָּׁר שָּׁה שׁלּה is he who— (שֵּׁה שׁבּר שׁלֹּה שׁבּר בּר.) may be used with the same meaning.

The use of relative particles is all the more frequent in Hebrew, because it has not formed from the personal pronouns any short relative pronouns answering to the Latin meus, tuus: hence איר שליה who (which) is mine, i. e., my, § 292, must always be used instead; except when the same idea can be expressed more briefly, as in the sentence איר בוּרָה: בוּרָה: בוּרָה: גַּבּוּרָה.

Every personal relative word stands disconnectedly at the head of its sentence, as a fundamental word put first to indicate the relation: it has on that account properly a complete sentence after it, and must, if the sense does not allow greater brevity, be further explained in the course of the sentence by its corresponding pronoun (usually of the third, yet possibly of the second or the first person), who — I said to him, i. e., in our language, to whom I said, just as in another case, acc. \$ 309: the man — I said to him, i. e., to the man I said. If therefore the relative word refers

- ו) to the *subject* of its sentence, its personal pronoun follows in the nominative: אָשֶׁר הוֹא חֵי *what is living*, though it may be omitted especially in small sentences: דְאָנָשִׁים אָשֶׁר אָהוּוּ the men who are with him; if it refers
- 2) to the *object*, it is completed in its proper place by the suffix: הָאִרֹי אֲשֵׁר כְּלָאְהוּ the man whom they imprisoned, although the suppletion may be left out, especially with mere things: בַּבְּר אַשֵּׁר דְּבֵּר the word which he spoke; but if it refers
- 3) to a word that is closely subordinated, its suffix can never be omitted on account of the needful perspicuity: אַמֶר בְּנוּ (he) whose son spoke, אַמֶר אָמֶר לּוּ (he) to whom he said: though in the general conditions of time, place, manner the accusative, acc. \$ 279, suffices: אַשֶּׁר בָּא עַר בְּלּוֹם אֲשֶׁר בָּא עַר בְּלּוֹם אֲשֶׁר בָּא that (when) he came, בַּמַּקוֹם אֲשֶׁר בְּא the place that (where) he spoke. As an indeclinable word, אַשֶּׁר שִׁם where, \$ 103, בַּשְּׁמַר מִשְּׁמַר מִשְּׁמַר מִשְּׁמַר מִּשְּׁמַר מִשְּׁמַר מִּשְׁר מִּשְׁר מִיּשְׁר מִשְּׁר מִשְּׁר מִיּשְׁר מִיּשְׁר מִשְׁר מִיּשְׁר מִישְׁר מִייִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִייִּים מִייִּים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִּיִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים מִייִים

Further, the possible positions and conditions of a relative sentence must be carefully distinguished:

\$332. I. The relative sentence further describes a substantive that was just before named, and is, therefore, most nearly related to a co-ordinate adjective, \$ 293. Since by the substantive the person of the relative sentence is already sup-

plied, and the relative sentence is essentially complete of itself without the relative word, acc. \$331, — it is not surprising that a special relative word is not infrequently omitted in this case, especially if the substantive to be described is indefinite, also mostly in poetic brevity; therefore

- ו) if the relation has the sense of the subject: בְּאֶרֶץ לֹא in a land that is not to them, i. e., not theirs;
- 2) f it has the sense of the object: אֶרֶץ יְרָעָה, a land that he knew, with the suffix, but without it also: יוֹרָנּוּ בְּבֵרְךְּ יִרָּחְ he teaches him as to the way which he should choose, i. e., which way he should choose:
- 3) if it refers to a word that is closely subordinate, when the suffix cannot be omitted: הַּבֶּר וּלְכוּ בָּה the way upon which they went, except where the accusative is intelligible acc. \$ 331. 3: אַרָּה הַבֶּרֶךְ יַחְלֵּלְ אוֹר which is the way where the light divides? Job 38. 19, 24; 21. 27. The relative word is omitted more constantly after short sentences which of themselves give no complete sense: רֹב אָרָם יִקְרָא there are many men who, i. e., many a one calls, \$ 299.

A single substantive in the stat. constr. rarely occurs: קְרֵח חְנָה דְרָוּ the city where David encamped, Is. 29. 1: but every word that requires suppletion must be more closely connected by the tone of the voice. — This usage is more common of certain words of general meaning, which are constantly found in this connexion, as מוֹם קְרָאַחְדְּ day, i. e. time in general, as יוֹם קְרָאַחְדְּ the day I called thee, i. e. when, quando.

2. The relative word itself is substantive instead of any \$333. other: אַיָּר עַל הַבְּיַח who (he who) is over the house, i. e., steward. Then it is also immediately interwoven into another sentence notwithstanding its connexion with its own sentence, and may therefore when referred to this second sentence become an object: בְּעָ אֶח־אַשֶּׁר יִקְרֶה how that that will come to pass, or may depend upon a word in the st. constr. or a preposition: אֲמַר לַאִּשֶּׁר עַל הַבְּיִח say to him who is set over the house.

Here also the artistically short style of certain poets sometimes omits the relative word although more rarely than \$ 332; most frequently after a st. constr. with a verb before it, where the strong antithesis of the incongruous words itself points to the connecting link: DIP > 2151

- \$ 334. 3. The relative word stands first acc. to num. 2, but it is afterwards more definitely explained as to its contents by a substantive subordinated in the accusative, acc. \$ 287 c: by which means an indefinite idea is formed as if the substantive stood first: who a wife, i. e., whatever wife, or if a wife—; what came as the word, i. e., what words, kind of words, came; though this convenient brevity is but rare in Hebrew, Lev. 4. 22; Num. 5. 29; Jer. 14. 1; Ez. 12. 25.
- \$336. II. The particle which takes up a mere thought and refers it to something else (the conjunction, as gaudeo quod vales) is that; more rarely אַטֶּר also is used in this sense. A sentence thus introduced refers
  - ו) rarely to a predicate in such a way that it supplies the definite subject: מוב אַשֶּׁר לֹא תִדּרֹ it is good that thou vowest not, for then the inf. constr. can be used mostly with greater brevity. But it refers frequently
  - 2) to the previous sentence as its object and as its nearer object depending immediately from an active verb, where, therefore, אָם also may stand before אָשׁר that, acc. § 207: הְּנִיד פִי he announced that—; I trust לֵּי that he will do (with the imperf.); I make that ye walk, Lat. ut eatis, Ez. 36. 27; Ecc. 3. 14, in that the tense and the mood of the verb in

the relative sentence are determined in each instance by the sense. With verbs of saying, seeing, hearing, and the like, however, the whole sentence may also be subordinated more briefly, acc. \$ 284, with its subject and predicate; and in the oscillation between these two possible constructions, יֻ often appears before the predicate only: he saw the light that (it) good, Gen. 1. 4, 6. 2; dicite justum יַ quod bonus, i. e., esse bonum, Is. 3. 10.

3) The relative word whether it is a preposition or another relative word joins a preceding noun in the constr. state with its sentence, and so becomes the connecting link of both: יום אשר day that —, i. e., that day, quando, יום אשר in the place that, i. e., in that place, briefer than in the place where, Lev. 4. 24, 33, where אַשׁר is preferred to בּ, because it can be used as an accusative acc. § 321. 3. Further, אשר must always be used with the shortest preposition: מאשר as that, or as—, in that, when, or when locality is referred to where, also transferred to cause, in so far, because (as prep. on account of in a late passage Jon. וו. 8); אַפָּס בָּי instead of that, אַפָּס בָּי saving that. But since somewhat stronger prepositions often stand before a sentence also as conjunctions without a relative word, or subordinate the inf. constr. most briefly, it is very important here to observe the historical usage of the language in reference to particular instances.

All subordinate relative sentences, accordingly, belong \$337-here, whether they are introduced by the simple relative conjunctions, or by the combination of the relative conjunctions with prepositions, or by more definite conjunctions; especially

- 1) the sentences of most general reference to something just spoken and left unfinished: interrogative, as what provokes thee אַנָּה מַעָּנָה that thou repliest? expressing astonishment, as O that we had died in Egypt של הוצאחם that ye (instead of that) have led us out of Egypt! Ex. 16. 3; Gen. 21. 7, comp. \$ 330.
- 2) Sentences expressing sequence and purpose, for which with the imperf. may serve, as Lat. ut with the conjunctive, Deut. 4. 40; 28. 27; Gen. 11. 7; after a verb of motion, the imperf. simply is sufficient to express even the aim and design,

- ש. 88. 11; Job 16. 8. A purpose is more clearly expressed by לְּחָעֵוֹ (in reference to this that —) and בַּעְבוּר (on account of this that —) with the imperf. or better with the voluntative, and by אַבּיְרָה also, \$ 325: I will ascend the mountain אַבְּיִּרָה f may (perhaps) propitiate God, i. e., in order that I (if possible) p. G. Ex. 32. 30. The negative that not, in order that—not, is expressed most briefly by אַבּיִּר, \$ 320, as the Latin ne, ψ 19. 14, more distinctly by אַבּיִּר, but this last particle stands also, as the Latin ne, in expressions of fear of an evil, which one will guard against (with the imperf.), Gen. 3. 22, or believes to have already come (with the perf.) 2 Kings 2. 16; 2 Sam. 20, 6.
  - 3) In temporal sentences we have
- a) מַּלְּיִר or בַּאָשֶׁר (rarely אַשֶּׁר alone, Jos. 4. 21) for our as, then, when, of the past, but also of the present or future, for our when, Lat. quum, not for if, Lat. si (comp. § 135. 1), and then of duration in the past for our whenever, i. e., as often as; the preposition is rarely joined more briefly with the part. immediately, acc. § 168. 2, for a present in the past, Gen. 38. 29. פּעָח at the time when—, at this time—, when once, Job 39. 18.
  - b) שֵׁבֶּם not yet and בַּשֶּׁבֶם before with the imperf. as the tense of the unfinished, whether the present or the past is spoken of, § 136. 3; more rarely with the perf. for our plupf. ψ. 90. 2. Similarly עָר אֲשֶׁר with the imperf. as donec pervenirem ψ. 73. 17.
- c) מְרָאָז after that, מְרָאָז or מְרָאָז since, and other particles with a similar meaning.
- § 338. III. The means of expressing indirect discourse are not so fully developed in Hebrew as in Greek and German, yet they are not altogether wanting. Not infrequently a thought about to be quoted, which might be quoted in direct narration, or introduced with יש that, is forthwith subordinated in indirect narration: ידעו אַנְשִׁים הַּמָּה do they know they are men!

  ψ. 9. 21; he commanded יוְעָמִה they should stand, Dan. 1. 5;
  Lev. 9. 6; θρ. 1. 10; Hos. 7. 2; more rarely, however, in a freer position and longer continued, ψ. 40. 4.

In quoting a speech or a thought the frequent form IDN to say, or o quote the words, § 280, is used; sometimes IEN merely is used as a shorter form for the same object, as &t.

#### 2. COPULATIVE SENTENCES AND WORDS.

I. The simplest connexion by means of and is in this \$339-language so frequent, both when a single noun is conjoined as well as a sentence, that it is also found with two ideas of which one as less important might often be subordinated to the other. — So often one noun is joined to another by and when we should use with; hence also the simple personal pronoun is often repeated before a second noun after a more important one: אוֹנ וֹנְעוֹלוֹן בּוֹנ הוֹא וֹנְעוֹלוֹן he and his men, i. e., with his men. Similarly the predicate, even if it is put after the nouns, can be referred only to the first noun, if this is the more important in sense: אוֹנ וְנַעְרֹחֵי אָצוֹן f and my maidens, i. e., with my m., will fast.

If the simple  $\neg$  connects a new sentence with a previous \$340. one, the new sentence may be an antithesis, inasmuch as the word which forms the antithesis to the previous sentence is put first, whenever this is at all possible: he called the dry land earth, and (but) the gathering of the waters he called sea, Gen. 1. 10. — But the second sentence may be, on the other hand, a more subordinate, explicative sentence, e. g., a comparative sentence, Job 5. 7; 14. 11 sq., also at times but repeating an important word (our even), Ecc. 1. 5;  $\vartheta \rho$ . 3. 26.

But here the most important thing is that the simple \( \gamma \) \$341. serves also to bring in descriptive or condition-sentences, \( \gamma \) 306, by the side of others; and thus the condition-sentence

1) may be more closely connected with the preceding one, and so itself have the 7 at its head; in which case the

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But such a condition-sentence, if it is not of too great substantive importance in relation to other members of the sentence, may also be subordinated more briefly in the accusative, acc. § 279, and most easily when a participle can be used (which even precedes its subject, if this is less important in meaning, Ez. 26. 5; 36. 12); but most boldly and rarely the condition-sentence is thrown in, as in a brief parenthesis, e. g., in a larger condition-sentence: [10] by by since he, warned (if he had taken warning), would have saved his soul, Ez. 33. 5; \( \phi \). 4. 3; Prov. 20. 14; Jud. 8. 4.

- 2) Or the condition-sentence is inserted in a long series of narrations, and may also stand at the beginning of a new narrative, although with the supposition of words previously spoken; here the ¬ may always stand first, and the first position is still more necessary for the subject, Gen. 18. 8; 24. 21; Jos. 6. 1 (without ¬ Deut. 5. 5); Num. 12. 11; ψ. 2. 6; Is. 3. 14.
- 3) But, lastly, when the condition-sentence is put first, in order to describe an event occurring in given conditions (whether ithe past, present or future is spoken of Jos. 2. 18), the subject must always be put prominently first (unless exceptionally the predicate for some special reason should be of much more importance, Gen. 27. 30); then the calm regular narration

may come in with the Vav of sequence, § 342, Gen. 24. I sq., unless to describe a sudden or unexpected event the second sentence also assumes graphically the form of a condition-sentence, Gen. 27. 30; 38. 25; I Sam. 9. II, or if no imperative or no question follows, which would make the and cumbersome, Gen. 49. 29; Ex. 3. 13.

If the subject is quite indefinite, the mere participle is sufficient to put a case or circumstance: מוֹשֵל צַּדִּיּוֹם whoever rules righteously, i. e., if anyone etc., 2 Sam. 23. 3 sq.; Job 41. 18; comp Jer. 23. 17; Gen. 4. 15.

These sentences, therefore, might be classified with the reciprocal sentences, \$\$ 355-57.

- II. From this common, weak copula and the stronger 342. and is, acc. \$231, to be carefully distinguished, since this refers back forcibly to what precedes, presenting what follows as conditioned by what precedes, and as issuing from it, thereby expressing a close and deep relation of the second to the first: and, i. e., and then, and so, so, so that. This Vav of sequence expresses,
- 1. in conjunction with the perf. and imperf., acc. \$ 231 sq., the action of the verb in relation to something already said in a living, changeful sequence, so that, as in a suddenly changed temporal relation past actions appear as coming but coming and unfinished actions as already come and finished, the simple tense or the simple mood, therefore, changes suddenly as it were into a complex tense, whether a simple tense precedes (as usually), or any other form of a sentence produces this definite meaning and sequence of tenses. If, e. g., simple narration requires at some point the imperative, this imper. changes (because it is only a branch of the imperf. acc. \$ 224 sq.), when the relative time or sequence of meaning comes in, immediately into the very calm expression of its antithetical tense, i. e., into the complex perf. with the Vav of sequence.

Still it cannot be denied, that the perf. consequativum generally \$343. is decreasingly used in Hebrew, as the language is presented to us, and that here and there (as Job 7. 17 sq.) the use of the imperf. consequ. instead has crept in, as the stronger of the two forms. Nevertheless, this does not occur to such an extent as that the imperf. conseq. is ever employed, e. g., when the imper. as a simple mood is required by the sense, acc. \$342.

- - ו) when a conclusion is drawn from something already said: אוֹנָ so was bought, Gen. 38, 20;
  - 2) when an emphatically prominent but unfinished thought is again taken up in the verb and more closely connected: and his concubine (as to her) so bore also she אַרָהַן Gen. 22. 24; for thy name's sake וְּמַלְחָן then forgive me, ψ. 25. 11; similarly after a note of time put abruptly at the beginning: עֵרֶב in the evening then you will know, Ex. 16. 6;
  - 3) after an interrogative, or another sentence which can be a protasis: what is man וַּהְרַעָהוּ that thou knowest him?
- Sa45. But since in these two tense-forms, acc. \$ 241, the Vav of sequence and its verbal form make up an inseparable compound, this entire construction is destroyed whenever another word than the verb must stand at the beginning of the sentence; in that case, therefore, the simple מו and stands first before this word and farther on that simple tense which would be used when there is no sequence: hence מַּבְּחַבּ, and מַבְּחַבּ, and מֵבְּחַבּ, ָּא מִבְּחַבּ, but also every other word which on account of the meaning must precede the verb, e. g., on account of an antithesis: מִבְּחַבְּיִבְּיִּ וְנִיבְּלָבְּע וְנִיבּ, מִבְּיִבְּעְּבָּיִי וְנִיבְּעָבְּעְּבָּיִי וְנִיבְּעָבְּעָּבְיִי וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעָבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְעְבָּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְעִבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבָּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּע וְנִיבְּע וְנִיבְּע וְנִיבְעִבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְּעְבְּע וְנִיבְיִבְּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וּנְבִיּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְיּע וְנִיבְיִי בְּעִבְּע וְיִבְיּע וְיִבְיִי בְּעִבְּי בְּעִבְּי בְּעִבְּי בְּעִבְּי בְּעִבְיּי בְּעִבְּי בְּעִבְיּי בְּעִי בְּיִבְּי בְּעִבְּי בְּעבְיּי בְּיִבְיּי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִבְּי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִי בְּיִבְיּי בְּיִי בְ

Notwithstanding, since this progressive sequence in narration, to which the Hebrew is so uncommonly attached, is so hardly given up, it is often restored with the aid of the most general verb to be before inserted notes of time or other words put somewhat more strongly prominent, so that

when the imperf. consequ. is required וְיָהִי, and when the perf. consequ. וְיָהִי supplies the place of the stronger and; whereupon follows the proper verb, either in a simple tense, or as in an apodosis with the Vav of sequence: מְהָּיִה בַּיּוֹם הַהוּא וַיִּהְיִּא וַיִּיאְמֵר and it came to pass on that day, then said he, if the sentence is not remodeled, acc. \$ 340. 3, Is. 37. 38.

Yet where one might expect according to the above § the simple § 346. tense-form, the complex tense-form, notwithstanding an intervening word, is sometimes continued separated from its \ \cdot and \, 2 Sam. 2. 23; \psi . 69. 22; \quad Prov. 9. 4, comp. v. 16.

- 2. This ánd expresses pure sequence of thought in conjunction § 347. with the imperative and voluntative with or without strengthening by 7-, \$ 228. This form for the expression of the will determined by something preceding is also met with after a calm sentence: thou desirest not sacrifice אחנה that I should (if thou desiredst it) give it. its place, however, is more after a challenging protasis (e.g., after the imperative, or an interrogative sentence), whereupon this sentence follows as a kind of apodosis: who is wise [1] that he may understand this? which is = if anyone is wise then he will understand this; seek me and live! which is said with greater animation for, if you seek me, you live; form a plan ithat it be broken / i. e., form but a plan, it will surely be broken. fore since this sentence always stands in close connexion with that preceding it, it may even lose the ánd and by that means connect itself still more closely: throw the staff to the ground so it will become a serpent, Ex. 7. 9. — But the limitations which affect the tense-forms, \$ 345, may destroy this connexion also.

The antithesis of these two fundamentally different kinds § 349. of and is formed in connexion with both single words and

sentences, 1) by explanatory words, as in his soul, his blood, Gen. 9. 4; in which way two verbs also may reciprocally complete each other: she is wasted, she sits on the ground, i. e., she sits wasted, Is. 3. 26, in which case, however, they usually stand close together, \$ 285. — 2) By climaxes for various purposes, e. g., Gen. 1. 11; Jud. 5. 27; to the third word, Deut. 29. 22. — 3) By brief, abrupt sentences, Jud. 5. 13.

- \$350. As the finite verb in its two main divisions, perf. and imperf., and their intersection by the imperf. conseq. and perf. conseq., forms in Hebrew the firm basis of calm and regular narration, all differing off-shoots and shades of meaning of the verb, with which the narration may begin, come back to the primary calm regularity in the further course of the narration. Hence
  - 1) stronger forms of expression recur to the common ones: the imper. and vol. do not generally continue through many verbs, and do not often occur in the midst of connected sentences generally: hence with with the imperf. of our languages often means in order that not, Jer. 10. 4, also at times merely with, acc. § 349. 1, Ex. 28. 32; 39. 23; similarly the infin. absol. and the part. denoting state or condition are not long continued.
  - 2) Shorter forms of expression are not carried on: the inf. constr. and the part. which gives concisely the force of a relative sentence fall back into the common tense-form required by the sense: לְשִׁים בּיִּלִים בּיִּלִים יִּיִּים יִּשִׁים וֹיִּלְיִם יִּיִּים אַּבְיוֹן in order to make (that he may make) the earth waste, and destroy the sinners from off her, Is. 13. 9; יְיִרִים אָּבְיוֹן בָּלִי עִיִּרִים אַבְיוֹן זַּלְיִנְּה who lifts up the lowly, exalts the needy, I Sam. 2. 8. A relative sentence especially falls also as soon as possible into the Vav of sequence, even in compressed expressions like: יְּבְּלִינְה בְּלִינְיִּלְיִּה seed of him who committed adultery and she (the mother, in this way) played the whore, Is. 57. 3; similarly Hos. 7. 10.
- \$351. A negative particle put emphatically before the first sentence can often prolong its force into the second sentence without any injury to the sense; as also the force of a preposition often continues in a following sentence with similar meaning, Is. 38. 18; 15. 8; Jud. 5. 9. More rarely a second parallel sentence brings up a word which the first sentence also requires, Zach. 9. 17; Is. 48. 11.

And since, further, the desire of brevity has force, not infrequently a second verb is annexed with in the inf. absol. simply, as § 280, in whatsoever form the preceding verb may appear, but especially if the actions are simultaneous and there is no change of person: און און I turned and saw (similarly with Nor, Lev. 25. 14; Deut. 14. 21); the inf. constr. with is also begins to be so used, Jer. 17. 10; 19. 12; Ecc. 9. 1.

III. In or stands next in order to nand, since it only \$352. adds a new possibility; therefore it may also stand before the perf. like the Vav of sequence and with the same force, Num. 5. 14. It is often corrective: or rather, with the second question Jud. 18. 19: thence also if haply, but if, Lat. sin, Lev. 4. 23, 28, so especially in the combination in what if haply. Still here and there the simple also obtains the meaning or, Is. 43. 9; 44. 7; Lev. 22. 13.

בּם מוֹנְהֶהָם also expresses interchangeable ideas, בַּם שְׁנֵהֶם uterque, \$ 267; or is even, which more rarely the simple בין also expresses. — אַר סי אַרְּן is simply stronger than ה

# 3. CAUSAL SENTENCES, REASON AND CONCLUSION; ADVERSATIVE SENTENCES.

The stronger ánd, § 342, alone sometimes serves to estab-§ 353. lish a statement, inasmuch as it may denote so, for, Ex. 15. 2, 8; Jon. 2. 4; the proper word for this is ישׁ, which originally meant because only, acc. § 336, but then standing more alone is equal to our for also. — ישׁ, prop. because on that account, is much more emphatic, in that the reason is twice indicated, and ישׁ שׁל פּן which is elsewhere demonstrative becomes relative in this connexion (comp. אַחַרִי בּן after so—, i. e., after that, 2 Sam. 24, 10), and, therefore, nearly — Lat. quandoquidem, since indeed.

In conclusions אַלְהָן and now, i. e., since that is so..., is used; further על בן upon such grounds, therefore; נְלֵהְן therefore (prop. with such, and thence in another connexion for all that, nevertheless, Jer. 5, 2).

The sense of an antithe is often lies only in the context§354. and the position of the words, whether the weak ? and precedes, § 340, or whether it is omitted, which makes the anti-

The exclamation אַרְּכִּי denotes in a simple sentence, affirmatively, and that . . .? i. e., really? or interrogatively, Gen. 3. 1; but adds the main point with increasing certainty, in merely an exclamatory form, in reference to a foregoing sentence, and, therefore, expresses after a negative sentence how much less, after an affirmative how much more. Similarly ס or after a negative sentence and that! i. e., how much less.

### \$355. C. TO THE CORRELATIVE SENTENCES,

i. e., double sentences of which the first points necessarily to the second, belong

- I. the conditional sentences, whether the apodosis is distinctly supplied or not. The primary conditional particle is
- ו. מו (rarely אַם לֹּא if not; it presupposes the certainty of the condition even of things that have not at the time actually come into existence, and, therefore, is construed, like the Vav of sequence, with the perf. as the perf. of the future (futurum exactum), which perf., however, soon changes into the proper simple tense, acc. § 350. 1; and stands as a particle of time in sentences which proceed from the imperf. as the simple tense (where it = as soon as), Num. 21. 9;

Amos 7. 2; the apodosis to the condition may then follow in the perf. also on account of the correlation, 1 Sam. 2. 16: which perfects must be carefully distinguished from those that denote in conditional sentences the actual past. The part. with אום denotes the near future, Jud. 9. 15; the imperfect, on the contrary, a merely supposed or scarcely possible condition, אום יהיה if — were, Is. 10. 22; ψ. 50. 12, when otherwise it stands merely on account of a disturbing word, \$ 345, instead of the perf. of the future, Num. 35. 20 sq. In like manner כל אישר

The perfect of conditional sentences is, therefore, a form equally as dependent merely on this special connexion as that with the Vav of sequence, § 342. Yet it must be observed, that in Hebrew it has already fallen very much into disuse, and the simple tense-form — i. e., the imperf., is used instead.

In the frequent sentences of swearing, the sentence in which the speaker \$356 invokes punishment upon himself is almost always omitted, as being of itself understood: אָרָאָלָאָרָ בּאָרָ  בּאָרָ בּבּי בּיּבּי בּאָבּיי בּאָבּי בּאָבָי בּאָבּיי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָרָ בּאָבָי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבּי בּאָבְיי בּאָבּי בּ

- 2. A condition, however, may be more briefly indicated \$357. in many ways without a conditional particle. When sentences stand in close conjunction, it is often sufficient to present a new supposition as a condition by means of Vav or N (\$352) of sequence, and generally of the perf., in which case the omission of the copula often indicates the apodosis more clearly: ánd awakest thou, she (wisdom) will lead thee safely, Prov. 6. 22. In other ways also an unusual and emphatic juxta-position of two sentences completes the meaning, e. g., if thousands fall at thy side to thee it (the destruction) will not extend, \$\psi\$, 91. 7); seen it has he and hides himself, i. e., having seen it, Prov. 22. 3; I call to thee thou deliveredst me, i. e., as soon as I called thou deliveredst me, \$\psi\$. 30. 9—12; let him call me then I will hear him, acc. \$347, \$\psi\$. 91. 15.
- 3. Since, acc. § 134, there is no firm distinction made§358. in the two main divisions of the verb, the perf. and the im-

- perf., between possibility and reality, to supply this want a second conditional particle has been formed לו (also אם לא calso אם לא calso אם לא calso אם לא לא (also אם לא calso), which lays down the condition notwithstanding the distinct feeling that the conditioned fact is at the time impossible: which distinction appears distinctly
- ו) in facts of the present, where the perf. may be used, as with אור א 355, but often a sentence of circumstance or state is found: לוּ חַכמוּ בִּינוּ if they were wise (which they are not) they would perceive this, אָמִי שׁ שׁ וֹ וֹן my people now and constantly heard (which it does not); abruptly: אוֹן וֹן if he hated us! (what should we do?) Gen. 50. 15; likewise and still more
- 2) in reference to the past: לוֹ הָיָה if it had come to pass (which it has not), where in the apodosis פָּי עַהָּה or הַּיָּא surely then often stands before the perf. And where such a protasis is not supplied, אָן or הַּאָע before the perf. can indicate, after an otherwise evident antithesis, what would then have come to pass, Ex. 9. 15.
- § 359. II. Correlative sentences or, with a less extensive reference, correlative words:
  - 1. To present different things as equal, as in one respect nevertheless coinciding and consorting, by D½—D½ also—also, i. e., as well—as, both—and, not only—but also; the second time the stronger D½ may stand, Ex. 10. 25 sq.; Gen. 24. 25; ημ-ημ, Is. 46. 21, and η-η, 38. 15; ψ. 76. 7; Num. 16. 17, are more rarely used for this purpose.
- \$360. 2. To present things that are different in juxta-position, as in some respect assimilating to each other: here the language manages to express the correlation by the simple repetition of the comparative בּ מֵבְּיִלְ בְּרָשְׁלַ בְּרָשׁׁלַ מֹּ the righteous so the sinner; if the second member should be expressed more strongly, e. g., if the comparative particle stands before a complete sentence, in that case מֵבְּ נֹם is used; also if the first comparison extends to a whole sentence, מְבֹּי שִׁ must be employed, acc. \$ 336 (very rarely merely מְבֶּי שִׁ חַבְּּ מִבְּי מִבְּ מְבְּ מִבְּ מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְ מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְיּי מִבְ מִבְ מִבְּי מִבְ מִבְ מִבְּי מִבְי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִּבְי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִּבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִבְי מִּבְי מִבְי מִבְּי מִבְּי מִבְּי מְבְי מִבְּי מְבְּי מְבְיּי בְּי מְבְי מְבְי בְּי מִבְי מִבְי מְבְּי מִבְּי מִבְיּי מִבְּי מְבְּי מְבְי מְבְ מְבְי מְבְיּ מְבְ מִבְּי מְבְיּ מְבְיּ מְבְיּי מִבְּי מְבְּי מְבְ

Often also the repetition, or the sharp contrast of the same word is enough to give the idea of correlation: תְּוֹלָ this—this, this—that; הוֹלָ hither and thither; אַשְׁשׁ חִילְּאָשׁ one to the other, אַשְׁשׁ each to the other, אַשְׁשׁ anation to nation, i. e., one nation to another.

3. To present different possible suppositions as equal to § 361-each other, אַם אַם (if one desires this, and if one desires that), Lat. sive—sive, is used: אַם מוֹנ אַם מוֹנ אַם מּנ sive bonum sive malum; the second time אַם alone, or merely אָם may be used; for a second disjunctive question אַם may be repeated, Num. 13. 18, yet אַן is oftener used instead, § 324. 2.

On the contrary, the stronger א \$ 352, is rather the corrective or suppletive or, but otherwise may be used in much the same way: אַה אוֹ רָאָה אוֹ יִרְעּע or whether he has seen it or knows it, Lev. 5. 1. Here also, as \$ 359, קּק may be more briefly used, but with the perf., like אַה, Prov. 29. 9. Many possible cases may be put also by the repetition of אַבּ אַ יִּישׁ יִּישׁ is it that or was it that, i. e., if even at times thus — or thus, Num. 9. 20 sq.

III. Sentences that cancel each other (uèv—δέ, true—yet) \$362. have rarely in Hebrew any external mark even in the protasis: still they can be formed, the first member putting a case by means of the challenging that/ which the apodosis, also without an adversative particle, forthwith abrogates, lat. ut faciat—tamen, should he—nevertheless— ψ. 49. 19. sq.; 21. 12; Hos. 13. 15; Deut. 18. 26; Jer. 4. 30; 50. 11; 51. 53; likewise אַלָּא that . . . / Ecc. 6. 3; 8. 12; similarly אַלָּא that . . . / Ecc. 6. 3; 8. 12; similarly אַלָּא בּנוֹ בּנוֹ מּנִי בּנוֹ מִּנְ מְּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ נִינִ נְ מִּנְ מִנְ מִּנְ נְיּנִי מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִּנְ מִנ

#### CONCLUSION.

#### Longer and limited sentences.

This is the construction of the simple or the compound §363. sentence in Hebrew; and the construction of many protases and long series of thoughts is in general sufficiently clear.

The insertion of other sentences within a sentence, parenthetical sentences, changes in the midst of a sentence, or also in the course of connected sentences, from the construction with which the writer began, occur to a larger extent than has been noticed: still these particulars must be examined in the connexion in which each occurs, and in accordance with the style of each author.

The connexion of sentences is carried on in most cases acc. § 340 sq. by the simple or complex and: but when a great picture is to be produced with conciseness and brevity, sentence may press on sentence without any and, acc. § 349.. 3, as Is. 30. 33.

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-	Io	יִשְׁרות	115	7	סַלְעָם	163	18	אַוֹבָה
7	2	ק <u>ֿר</u> א	<b>—</b>	116	בָּטַב	167	7b	ָּדֶבֶּי
8	1, 6, 7	יכי י	116	12	ڎٙۅ۬ۯٮ		ıЪ	ָנָתְיִה
9	9	בֿעַבְנוּ	_	18	הַשָּׁמֵר	177	Ιb	אַשַּלַחַה
12	1	יבָתֵב	_	6ъ	אָמֵלָל	179	7b	ؘٷۣڔڎؚڿؗڡ
	9	ָתַּכָּתַב <b>ְנָה</b>	-	ıb	ָתְצִינְת <b>ּ</b>	180	15b	
	10 (Hith	ולעבּעוֹר (·d	119	8	מְנִי	_	_	אַיַבְהּוּ
-	(Nif.)		122	3b	עָצְבָּח and עָצָם	181	11	<del>۔۔</del> بڅا
13	I	יַּבָּתֶב	123	ıь	הַנָרא	182	15	ناۋور
18	4	בָּתוּב	124	16	יָהָיֶה	184	9b	<del>ָש</del> ָׁנֵי
21	2b*	וֹכַחָבּוֹהוּ	127	18	רוָלֶוֹמֶת	185	13b	מַאָה
_	ıb	יַכְהִּיב	132	9	אַלוּהַ		115	לָבַ <b>ר</b>
24	ıb	יָדן י	133	14b	المودا	188	8	רְחַבְעָם
25	3b	ָמָבֶ <u>ֶּ</u> ם	_	115	-wi	194	2b	בַּאָחָהוּ
40	14b	יִשְאַל	136	7	רַצַ	201	13b	הַפּרָדָּ
45	ıb	בַּתַנות	_	8ъ	המית המה	202	4b	בַּאָבַע
48	Io	אַיִו	137	5	ָצָטָמָים	208	18P	לִמִ <b>סְפַּר</b>
51	15	ישַׂרַינ	138	14b	ַחֹמֵאת	222	5	גבורה
63	ıb	לִקרַאת	141	Iop	וֹנוֹלִם	223	ıb	בָּידִי,
69	12b	יַקמון	142	ıb	ۋا	225	16	פַאֲשֶׁר
73	ıp	לְבָּי עָלָה	143	15b	הָקָמֶנָה	228	4	أَلَّوْتُأَرُّك
91	ıb	כומכ	144	5	שַּׁמְנוּ	-	<b>2</b> b	בְּעַל
101	18	נָרְאָה	147	17b	אָמְנָם	237	Iop	בָּׁי
105	17	1	153	2b	<b>چ</b> چ <b>ר</b>			
106	15b	ן גָּיְחְשַׁב	154	13	ן וֹבּּרוּ <b>ו</b>			

<sup>\*</sup> b = from below.

It having been observed that in the course of the press work some vowels have come off so as to be found wanting in a certain number of copies, the reader's attention is directed to the above list of words in which such faults may be expected to appear.

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